The Outlook

Vol. 71 August 16, 1902 No. 16

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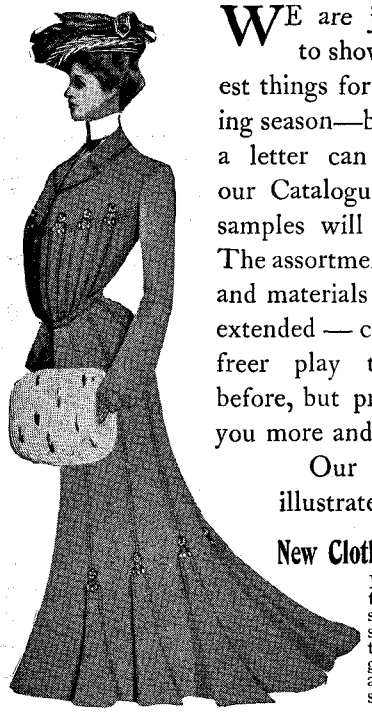

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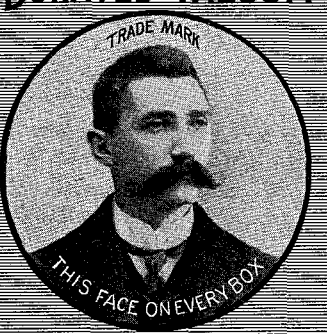

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The Outlook

Published Weekly

Vol. 71 August 16, 1902 No. 16

Vacation Experiences of Outlook Readers

The editors of The Outlook offer Three Prizes of One Hundred, Seventy-five, and Fifty Dollars for the best short descriptions of vacation experiences in any season of the year, the accounts to be illustrated by sketches or photographs by the author. Prizes will be awarded upon the combined merits of text and illustration. The articles should not exceed twenty-five hundred words in length, and they must be accompanied by not less than three nor more than twelve drawings or photographs. The competition is open to all subscribers to The Outlook, or members of a family in which The Outlook is taken. Photographs may be of any size suitable for reproduction in The Outlook; they must be taken by the author of the article, but need not be developed and printed by him; it is not allowable for one subscriber or person in a family to take the pictures while another writes the article; every picture should have a caption written plainly on its back. The article and every picture should be signed by a pseudonym, and a sealed envelope bearing this pseudonym and containing the author's full name and address should accompany them. Articles and pictures must reach The Outlook, 287 Fourth Avenue, New York, before January 1, 1903.

The articles which receive prizes will be published in the Recreation Number of The Outlook for 1903. The Outlook believes that this offer will elicit the production of articles and pictures of unusual interest. The announcement of this plan is made thus early, in order that those who wish to compete may be reminded of the subject during their holidays this summer.

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The Coronation With almost all possible ceremonial and pomp (for the curtailment on account of the King's illness was, after all, not very great), Edward VII. was crowned in Westminster Abbey on Saturday last. The people's affection for their King had been intensified by the severe trial through which he has just passed, and the prevalent note was one of rejoicing and thankfulness that, only seven weeks after an alarming attack of illness and a dangerous operation, he had so far recovered as to sustain the ceremony with no ill effects whatever. Apart from the absence of some foreign personages of distinction and special ambassadors, little was lacking in the display and the function from the original design. All London was decorated lavishly, if not always in the most perfect taste as regards the color scheme; hundreds of thousands of people thronged the carefully guarded route of the processions to the Abbey, and the longer return to Buckingham Palace; the Abbey itself was a blaze of color and jewels—gold, crimson, and white predominating; the popular enthusiasm seemed reserved for the King himself, and even the Prince of Wales received less than his usual welcome; the quaintly splendid costumes of the hereditary officials, heralds, kings-at-arms, king's standard-bearer, bearers of the regalia, and lords and ladies in waiting, were a curious reminder of the fact that the most democratic of constitutional monarchies clings more closely in matter of form and ceremony to the mediæval than do her absolutist neighbors of Europe. The coronation itself was dignified and not over-complicated. The venerable Archbishop of Canterbury with difficulty performed his full part because of feebleness; the Archbishop of York placed the Queen's crown on her head. The historic "Vivats" of the Westminster boys, the formal presentation of the King to the people toward the four cardinal points of the compass, the administration of the oath, the anointing, the enduing of the royal robes, the girding on of the sword of state, the bestowal of the ring symbolic of kingly dignity, and, finally, the homage of the Prince of Wales, the Duke of Norfolk for the dukes, and representatives of the other orders of nobility—all these and other acts of the ceremony were both in accordance with ancient custom and endowed with real significance and meaning. All over the Kingdom and Empire rejoicings took place, and on Sunday and Monday thanksgiving services were held in many of the cathedrals and churches. The only discordant note was in the utterances of some of the Irish leaders, notably John Redmond and John Dillon. It may be noted in view of recent discussion that the part of the King's oath relating to religious matters read as follows:

> Will you to the utmost of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the Gospel, and the Protestant Reformed religion established by law? And will you maintain and preserve inviolably the settlement of the Church of England, and the doctrine, worship, discipline, and government thereof as by law established in England? And will you preserve upon the Bishops and clergy of England, and to the Church therein committed to their charge, all such rights and privileges as by law do or shall appertain to them or any of them?

❀

Education in England Mr. Balfour, the new British Prime Minister, has put over the Education Bill until the autumn, after having secured the passage of those clauses which (1) lodge control in the municipal and county councils, and (2) assure a two-thirds majority of denominational managers to denominational schools that are now to be supported by the public rates. Through this Education Bill the Tory party is, indeed, fulfilling its promise to the Established Church. Eight thousand parishes in England and Wales having only one school, a church school, find that it has become a so-called public school without changing its character, while demanding support from those who are opposed to its enforced religious teachings. Naturally, the Nonconformists are up in arms. Given Mr. Balfour's farsightedness in all things, the question among both Conservatives and Liberals now is, Will he not finally kill this Education Bill by a faint-hearted support? In the new Balfour Cabinet the Marquis of Londonderry becomes the President of the Board of Education, while the Secretary is Sir William Anson. Mr. Balfour has a right to expect a good deal from the new Secretary. Sir William Anson is a notable Balliol and All Souls scholar, and

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Oxford University has delighted to honor him with its highest degrees. He long held the appointment of Vinerian Reader in English Law at Oxford, and is the author of "Principles of the English Law of Contracts" and "Law and Custom of the Constitution." Other and more striking changes in the Cabinet are the transferences of Messrs. Ritchie, Akers-Douglas, and Austen Chamberlain, respectively Home Secretary, First Commissioner of Works, and Civil Lord of the Admiralty, to the offices of Chancellor of the Exchequer, Home Secretary, and Postmaster-General. Finally, the Earl of Dudley, the new Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, is excluded from a seat in the Cabinet, the seat being very properly bestowed upon Mr. Wyndham, Chief Secretary for Ireland. The Lord Lieutenancy thus becomes really what it has long practically been, an ornamental position.

❀

The Retirement of Ambassador White

A man who has served his country in a foreign land so long, so honorably, so effectively as our Ambassador to Germany, the Hon. Andrew D. White, is entitled at the age of seventy to release, if he desires it, for return to his home among us. But it is with deep regret that multitudes of his countrymen have learned that Dr. White has requested this release, and expects it next November. A scholar as well as a diplomat, he has been, as thoroughly as any American could be, *persona grata* in that land of scholars. In presence of a noisy and unscrupulous anti-American faction, his character and accomplishments have exhibited us to thoughtful Germans at our best. Amid conditions that seemed menacing to international peace, Dr. White, with his native tact, his trained sagacity, his personal friendliness with the Kaiser and his Ministers, was eminently the right man in the right place. The honor and peace of both nations were secure with him, and Mr. Hay's masterly hand in Washington was seconded by as masterly a hand in Berlin. Dr. White's two terms of service at Berlin (1879–1881, 1897–1902) cover a longer period than any other American has served there, and his departure will be regretted there only less than it is here. To fill the post he leaves is quite as difficult a problem as any of the kind that President Roosevelt will have to solve. The Hon. David J. Hill, Assistant Secretary of State, the Hon. Bellamy Storer, Minister at Madrid, and the Hon. Charlemagne Tower, Minister at St. Petersburg, have each been mentioned as his possible successor. Some are now urging that in the present condition of our trade relations with European countries "a new type of representative" is needed in European capitals—not scholars or diplomats, but distinctively business men of large experience in the management and detail of commercial affairs. Dr. White, indeed, after his administration of Cornell University for its first eighteen years, has certainly not been deficient in that point of view. And it would be a National misfortune were he to be followed by any man, however sagacious commercially, less representative than he of the cultural interests of American life.

❀

Señor Sagasta

The announcement last week by the Spanish Premier that he considers his public mission ended coincides closely with Lord Salisbury's similar statement. Señor Praxedes Sagasta, who has been Prime Minister of Spain oftener than was the Marquis of Salisbury Premier of Great Britain, may not have the latter's success in immediately fulfilling a wish to retire from public life. In the first place, there is no Mr. Balfour in Spain, ready by instinct, environment, equipment, and training to take over the burden of the Premiership. In the second place, there is a religio-political issue in Spain of more vital importance than the religio-political school question in England. Spain is monk-ridden; England is not. As in France, the character of Spanish Roman Catholic priests is, in general, exemplary; not so much may be said for the members of the various religious orders. The question in Spain, then, is, How may the Government bring the thousands of monks and nuns under State control? The settlement of this question in France has needed all the combined adroitness and firmness of a Waldeck-Rousseau; in Spain it also needs these qualities, which, better than any other statesman in the Peninsula,

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Señor Sagasta knows how to apply. It is probable, therefore, that a determined effort will be made by the Liberals to keep the veteran in office, while greatly lightening his labors in connection with the vexed questions of Spanish finance—banking, currency, taxation. Nearly two years ago Señor Sagasta accomplished what seemed to most an impossibility; he induced the ultramontane Queen-Regent to sign a decree (supported by laws previously passed by the Cortes, or Parliament) by which all associations were ordered to inscribe their name and status on the register of their respective provinces, failing which they would incur severe penalties, including dissolution. As in France, the religious orders protested, and largely for the same reasons—if they were on a footing with lay associations they might be forced to disclose the amount of their incomes, property holdings, and, above all, their relations with certain movements believed to be subversive of public security. The decree gave six months' time in which to comply with the law, but during this time the clever machinations of the Papal Nuncio at Madrid made the decree practically nugatory, replacing the declaration regarding registration by empty formulæ. A Cabinet crisis thereupon ensued, and Señor Sagasta formed a new Cabinet, the leaders of which bound themselves to carry out the religious reform. When it was seen that most of the ministers had agreed to this only to gain time, another crisis ensued, which was apparently patched up as before. If Señor Sagasta is really in earnest about religious reform in Spain, how can he consider his public mission finished?

❀

The Miners' Strike Enters on its Fourth Month

The thirteenth week of the miners' strike ended with no sign of a break in the ranks of either party to the conflict. For three entire months, therefore, the anthracite mining industry of Pennsylvania—and of the world—has been suspended, and the time is drawing near when the urban population of the Eastern States will require the resumption of work in order to obtain a prime essential to household comfort. Indeed, the time is already at hand, if we are to believe the statement issued last week by Mine Inspector Stein—that one or two months must elapse between the opening of the mines and the shipping of any large supply of coal to market. The mines, says this Pennsylvania inspector, are many of them in bad condition because of the long suspension of work, and but little coal can be mined from some of them for three or four months to come. Nevertheless, the companies still refuse to arbitrate, and the miners' union is obtaining support from other labor organizations to continue its struggle, on the ground that the fight is essentially one for the right to organize. Until the union surrenders it is difficult for the companies to obtain men to break the strike, for the Pennsylvania law treats mining as a skilled and extra-hazardous trade, and forbids the employment of men as "miners" unless they have served a two years' apprenticeship as helpers in the mines. With all the anthracite-coal miners in the union, and the few soft-coal miners not in the union busy in their own fields, the supply of strike-breakers is unusually limited. Last week order was restored in the region of Shenandoah, and the troops seemed able to insure protection to any men willing to work in the mines, but nevertheless no mines resumed work. The only evidence of weakness on the part of the strikers is the increasing frequency of the reports of the shameless persecution of men still at work for the companies.

❀

"Taxed into a Deficit"

The widespread movement for the equal taxation of corporations is calling forth from the corporations affected cries of confiscation. The latest plaint of this kind comes from Chicago, where the taxes of several public-service corporations have been increased as the result of recent court decisions. The Union Traction Company, which operates the street railways in the north and west divisions of Chicago, showed a deficit for the fiscal year closing June 30, 1902, of $247,527, as against a small surplus for the year preceding. In a report submitted to the stockholders of the company week before last President Roach said: "The financial statement will show that prospective profits have been taxed into a deficit."

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This bare statement is so likely to be misleading to those not familiar with the situation as to call for some explanation. The receipts of the Chicago Union Traction Company from operation last year were $7,825,000. The expenses of maintenance and operation were $4,570,000, leaving net earnings from operation for the year of $3,254,000. The taxes paid, to which President Roach lays the blame for the deficit, aggregated $683,000. This amount deducted from the net earnings from operation would still leave over $2,500,000 applicable to payments on account of investment—a very handsome rate of income on any reasonable capitalization. The reason there is no surplus left for Union Traction Company stockholders is because the Union Traction Company owns no street railways, but is a lessee of the North and West Chicago street railroad companies, which in turn are lessees in part of still other subordinate companies. By the complicated leasing arrangement, the dividends on the stock of the constituent companies, which in some cases are as much as thirty-five and thirty per cent. annually, are made to appear as fixed charges. The total capitalization resting on the lines operated by the Union Traction Company is over $250,000 per mile of single track, while the capitalization of the City Railway Company, operating in the south division of the city, which has a much more valuable plant and equipment, is less than $90,000 a mile. The property operated by the Union Traction Company is well able to pay the tax assessed against it, which by the terms of the lease with the underlying companies the Union Traction Company is bound to pay. Other Chicago public-service corporations have been subjected to the same rate of increase as the Union Traction Company, yet they have not dared to make complaint, because the justice of the increase was so obvious in their cases. It is only the complicated condition of its own financial arrangements that enables the Union Traction Company to make out a plausible case of confiscation by taxation.

❀

Two Corrections

Two recent statements in these columns, based upon apparently authentic press reports, prove to have been incorrect. The Secretary of the Republican State Central Committee of Michigan writes us that there was no foundation whatever for the despatches stating that four Michigan Congressmen had been defeated for renomination because they had supported the beet-sugar insurgents against the reciprocity bill until it was so amended as to remove all protection from the Sugar Trust. "The sugar controversy," Secretary Alward writes us, "had absolutely no relation to the contest in any one of the four districts, and probably wasn't even thought of at any stage of the contest." Other Eastern papers, it may be said, have published equally authoritative denials of the despatches stating that Nebraska Senators had been rebuked at home for supporting the beet-sugar insurgents at Washington. The Chairman of the Nebraska Republican State Committee has written that these despatches had not the faintest tinge of justification in anything that had occurred. The other erroneous report which we need to correct relates to the Democratic State Convention in Missouri. A delegate to that Convention writes us that the resolutions indorsing the Chicago and Kansas City platform were adopted by a unanimous vote—the one hundred and twenty-two St. Louis delegates concurring with the rest. The only basis for the report that the St. Louis delegation had opposed the reaffirmation of the last National platforms, says our correspondent, Dr. W. P. Bradley, was that at the Judicial Convention, held less than a fortnight before the State Convention, the St. Louis delegation had voted with many others against the adoption of any party platform—or, as he expresses it, "against the Judicial Convention doing the work that would properly belong to the regular State Convention." We are glad to correct our report upon both these matters.

❀

The Death of a Desperado

A fitting end to a life of murder and robbery was the death by his own hand of the desperado Tracy last week. After a career of robbery covering several years, in which he had killed at least three men, Tracy was captured in 1899 while trying to escape on a stolen locomotive, and was sentenced to twenty years' imprisonment in the Oregon State Penitentiary, with an accomplice, Merrill. Last June some one

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smuggled for them two repeating rifles into the prison, and they made their escape after killing four men. Then followed that pursuit of weeks in which Tracy showed such astounding bravado, brute bravery, and skill in eluding capture that people the country over followed the accounts with the eagerness of a small boy absorbed in his first dime novel. The killing of Merrill by Tracy, probably for suspected treachery; the killing by him of three members of a posse, and the wounding by him of two others of the same posse; his holding up of six men, four of whom he forced to embark with him on a gasoline launch and take him up Puget Sound for ten hours; his repeated appearances at farms, where he made the people furnish him food and clothes, guide him on his way, and conceal his movements through fear of his returning to kill them—all these things were incidents in a fight against law which for pure daring and resource has hardly a parallel. Those who think that modern life is devoid of the melodramatic can find in this story enough of sensational happenings to fit out with material the writer of half a dozen "shilling shockers." It is a trait of human nature to sympathize with the hopeless and to admire courage even in a bad cause; and no doubt many readers were for a minute tempted to forget the black villainy of this scoundrel's deeds in reading of his daring, while others may have shared in fancy the excitement of the hunters who pursue a fierce and cunning prey. When the convict, wounded, surrounded in a corn-field, and helpless, took his own wretched life, there ended the career of a typical "bad man"—typical, not of the Far West, but of one now fast disappearing phase of Western life.

❀

American Catholic Societies and the Philippine Friars

The annual session of the American Federation of Catholic Societies met last week at Chicago. The two men most prominent in the organization and maintenance of this Federation were Bishop McFaul, of Trenton, N. J., and Bishop Messmer, of Green Bay, Wis. Therefore, although the Federation is avowedly a distinctly lay organization, what these two prelates had to say has been justly accepted as the most significant utterance of the Convention. It will be remembered that Archbishop Ireland, in his sermon reported in last week's issue of The Outlook, strongly supported the action of both the United States and the Vatican in the negotiation concerning the Philippine friars, and cautioned loyal Roman Catholics against mischievous interference. Both Bishop McFaul and Bishop Messmer saw fit—the one in an address, the other in a sermon—to take issue with the Archbishop. Bishop McFaul protested against the school system in the islands, reiterating the charges of proselytism which Archbishop Ireland had dismissed as unintelligent; he also severely and sweepingly criticised the army. Bishop Messmer's remarks were in similar spirit. The attitude of the two Bishops toward the public schools of the United States seemed to be as uncompromising as their attacks upon the school system in the Philippines. Close upon the reports from this Convention have come despatches from Rome of a much more significant nature; they declare that the Pope has been informed of Archbishop Ireland's utterances expressive of confidence in the procedure of the Administration, and has expressed his high pleasure. We recall no parallel in which the Holy See has exactly thus honored an American prelate by indorsing his opinions.

❀

A Negro Young People's Congress

A new movement among negroes for religious and educational improvement has made its appearance under the name of the Negro Young People's Christian and Educational Congress. The first annual meeting was held August 6–11, at Atlanta, Ga. At its opening it was estimated that the delegates numbered five thousand. Many representative men of the race were present. A letter of greeting and approval was received from President Roosevelt. Addresses of welcome were made by the Governor of the State, the Hon. A. D. Candler, one of the leaders of public opinion on the race problem in the South, and by the Mayor of the city. Booker T. Washington made a characteristic speech. Bishop Gaines, of the African Methodist Episcopal Church, President of the Congress, in outlining the purposes of the organization, declared

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that its intention was not to create a new agency for educational and religious uplifting, but to quicken existing agencies. That such a purpose is an enlightened one no one who knows anything of the condition of churches and schools among the negroes can doubt. One of the most destructive influences in the religious life of the negroes is due to the multiplication of sects. There are, for instance, among them seven important varieties of Methodists and four of Presbyterians. Every new religious organization only adds a burden to a race already overburdened. In a similar way, there is a lack of unity in the efforts made by whites and blacks alike for the education of the negro, though the problem that these efforts are intended to solve is one that can be stated in a single phrase. To bring order out of this chaos, to imbue these diverse and sometimes warring elements with the spirit of unity, is unquestionably the most important aim this Congress has. To this end its scheme of organization "includes all denominations and agencies working among the negro people in the United States."

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The Objects of the Congress

The plans announced for the Congress are certainly ambitious; among others the following are submitted:

First—To urge aggressive Christian work among the youth of the race.

Sixth—To emphasize the necessity for self-help, and by this encourage the help of others.

Tenth—To exhibit the bright side of the race, such as ten thousand negroes would make.

Fourteenth—To consider the question of crime among the negro race. . . .

Sixteenth—Our duty to Africa, not so much in point of deportation, as sending trained workers to evangelize it.

Eighteenth—To promote systematic study of the Bible.

Nineteenth—To give opportunity for the wide dissemination of information among the leadership of the race.

This movement, originated and directed by negroes, who are convinced that "the cultivation of the spiritual and moral" is the only right basis for "the use of the intellectual, social, and material," seems to be under sound guidance. Whether its bigness at the very beginning is the result of a mere love of numbers, or, as we hope, the sign that it is meeting a wide-felt but hitherto unsatisfied need, remains yet to be proved. In the meantime, this Congress can set before itself no ideal more in harmony with its name, Christian and Educational, than that set before it by Mr. Washington in his address: "Let us cultivate friendship and love for all races and individuals, and harbor hatred for none. If others would be little, let us try to be great; if others would hate us, let us try to love them; if others would be cruel to us, let us be merciful; if others should break the law, let us respect it; if others would seek to push us down, let us seek to raise them. . . . Let us remember that the surest protection will be our usefulness to the community in which we live."

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Negro School Taxes

The Richmond "Times" takes The Outlook to task for accepting the figures of the last Atlanta Conference report with regard to the taxes paid by the negroes of Virginia. Upon one very important point the "Times" is right, and we wish to give to its correction the same prominence which we gave to the previous misstatement. The poll taxes paid by negroes in Virginia do not amount to $125,000—as was stated not only in the Atlanta Conference report, but also in the earlier report of the Hampton Conference. This is the amount of the poll taxes "assessed" against negroes. The amount actually collected in 1900, according to the "Times," was but $66,000. Had the "Times" stopped here, its criticism would have had greater force. It proceeds, however, to declare that the direct taxes collected for school purposes from the property owned by negroes—property now appraised at $16,000,000—amounted to only ten cents on the hundred dollars instead of thirty cents, as the Atlanta Conference report assumed. Upon this point the figures contained in the Census of 1890 indicate that the "Times" is entirely in the wrong. In that year the State levy for schools was nearly ten cents on a hundred dollars, and the additional levy for schools in the "county and minor divisions" was almost twice as much again. The general increase in school taxes in the South during

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the past decade indicates that thirty cents on the hundred dollars is an eminently fair estimate to-day. But the most serious mistake of the "Times" is in assuming that the negroes pay no indirect taxes "worth taking into account" in dealing with school taxation. Indirect taxes are the heaviest resting upon the negro race. Take the country at large, the yearly license fees collected by State and local bodies—chiefly from liquor stores—aggregate nearly three dollars for every family, and if the Virginian negroes contribute one-half of their pro-rata share of these taxes on liquor and other articles of general consumption, they pay into the public treasuries of the Commonwealth nearly $200,000 a year in this way. If one-quarter of these local taxes are used for educational purposes, the negro contribution may fairly be reckoned at $50,000. In other words, the estimate of the Atlanta Conference—$35,000 to $85,000—was entirely reasonable. We are glad to see that in Mississippi the present movement to restrict the negro public-school fund to the direct contributions of the poorer race is meeting with the opposition of Governor Longino, Bishop Galloway, and other representatives of the best thought of the State.

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Brigandage It will be remembered that when the question of ransoming Miss Stone from her brigand captors came up, there were many who thought that to pay tribute for her release would be to encourage similar outrages. The situation was a painful one; whatever cold reason might suggest, humanity called loudly for the rescue of our countrywoman at all hazards; one might almost say that the only course was the not very logical one of paying the ransom and then regretting it and declaring that we would never do it again. Whether the success of Miss Stone's captors in getting their money and escaping capture has had the effect feared, or whether it is a mere coincidence, it is a fact that other cases of kidnapping have followed in startling rapidity. From Albania, from Rumania, and from Greece come accounts of the seizing of men or women, generally members of wealthy families; in all there have been at least eight crimes of this kind lately reported. The authorities in the countries disgraced by this brigandage are not customarily active in repressing this sort of crime, but they must be urged by international public sentiment to take sharp measures.

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Armenia It is a satisfaction to note that M. Delcassé, French Minister of Foreign Affairs, has promised a deputation of officials who are interested in saving the Armenians from massacre to send a French consular agent to the post in Turkey where the greatest danger threatens. One may wonder under what pretext the Turkish Government can kill the law-abiding subjects of that land, but here is one of the latest to be recorded: A rich Armenian of Sassun was taxed by the Government to such an extent that his riches in grain and cattle and money melted entirely away. On the last summons he declared that he had nothing more which he could give, but that if the Government would grant him time he would secure more money. That night the Kurdish officer, under the pay of the Turkish Government, sent a servant to shoot the Armenian, and it was quickly done. More than a hundred men from that locality are now in prison because they cannot pay these cruel exactions. A recent letter from Armenia describes the method: "From five to ten thousand piasters are demanded of each little village. The collector arrives with a posse of soldiers, and these soldiers assemble all the men and women of the village, strip them naked, and deluge them with water from the wells till they faint, beating them with sticks, and by these brutal methods compel the poor people to give up their last cow or sheep, to save their lives." If the Armenians resist, they are killed. If they try to defend themselves, the slaughter becomes general, and a massacre is started. It must not be forgotten that the Armenians are not allowed to possess any kind of weapons, not even a pocket-knife, and that their murderers are literally armed to the teeth with knives and pistols. So long as the people can cling to the hills they can survive by hiding, but the endeavor is to force them down to the plains, where the soldiery can get at them. Once there only a large supply of money or the acceptance of the religion of the un-

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speakable Turk can save them. Is it any wonder that the harassed nation cries to the French and the English and the Americans at least to keep consuls in Armenia, that the world may know of its woes?

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The Congo Mission Southern correspondents have kindly corrected important particulars in our paragraph of August 2 on "Negro Missionaries." Before putting it in type due care was taken to submit its statements to the scrutiny of one supposed to know the facts. Summarizing the statements of our correspondents, the facts are these: The Congo Mission is the most flourishing foreign mission of the Southern Presbyterian Church, "its joy and pride." Of its workers in that field five are white, and five or six (the statements vary) are negroes, of whom three received their training at Talladega College, Alabama. Two others, both negroes, are under appointment. Southern Presbyterians are "especially proud" of the Rev. W. H. Sheppard, believed to be the only minister of their Church distinguished by the title of F.R.G.S., won by his explorations. He was graduated at the Stillman Institute, Tuscaloosa, Alabama, maintained for negro students by the Southern Presbyterian Church. The Rev. S. N. Lapsley, his white associate, who died in the pioneer work of the mission, was educated in the seminaries of that Church, and was a son of Judge Lapsley, sometime Moderator of the Southern Presbyterian Assembly. The missionary steamer named for him was built at a cost of $16,500, nearly all contributed by white children in Southern Presbyterian Sunday-schools, and the brick-press, which supplied material for church-building, was likewise the gift of a white friend, the Rev. Dr. Sampson, Principal of the Pantops Academy, Virginia. The Rev. L. C. Vass, whose construction of the steamer gained him the epithet of "Admiral," is of "the best Southern blood." Mr. Hawkins and Mr. Phipps, both negro missionaries, were trained, the one at Tuscaloosa, and the other at the Moody Institute, Chicago. In correcting misstatements for which it was not in fault The Outlook sincerely congratulates the Southern Presbyterian Church on a missionary work of great and growing opportunities, worthy of its noblest zeal, and of as hearty co-operation of both races in America as in Africa.

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Parks and Outdoor Life How recent is the movement for establishing parks in cities was indicated in the address of the President of the American Park and Outdoor Art Association at Boston last week. President Parker's statement was that "fifty years ago no municipality in the United States had purchased an acre of land for park purposes," but that to-day it is probably safe to say that "the cities of the United States have seventy-five thousand acres of land in parks." Out of this movement has come this Association. The most noteworthy address of the session was made by President Eliot, of Harvard. His knowledge of the subject is not merely that of a public citizen of high standing, but also that of one who has had occasion to know the subject intimately, for his son, the late Charles Eliot, was an expert landscape architect. President Eliot began by saying that our American parks are not "lived in and delighted in" as they ought to be, for Americans are only beginning to understand outdoor life. Hopeful signs in this respect, however, he saw in more general use of open cars and the practice of attending athletic games. He urged that the parks should be so administered that the habit of living in the open air should be encouraged, and to this end he suggested improvements in these directions: intelligent and adequate policing, and brilliant lighting of places used at night; increased facilities of transit to the parks, especially by electric cars running along lines not paved but turfed and removed from the highways; open places, with inexpensive restaurants and suitable shelter, in which people may eat and drink; ample and convenient supply of water; provision for the care of horses; and even the privilege given to the people generally of picking flowers and berries that grow in parks. Some of President Eliot's statements were strikingly unconventional: "On the whole, winter is a far better season for walking in public parks and forests than summer is." "Small squares in the midst of dense population should be open-air parlors, resorts for the feeble

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and infirm, rather than for the strong and tireless." "It is only the public estates [in contrast to private estates in America] which are likely to be permanent and to be enjoyed by many successive generations." In closing, President Eliot pointed out the moral benefits gained by the use of the parks—the promotion of family life, freedom from the squalor and tumult of the city, and acquaintance with the beauty of the endless forms of nature. On the second day the reports from the branches of the Woman's Auxiliary showed how widespread this movement is. New Orleans, Louisville, Milwaukee, and three branches in California were represented. The meeting of this Association is one of the indications of the real idealism that underlies American life. A specific instance of this was given in the address of Miss Mira Lodge Dock, member of the Pennsylvania Forestry Commission, to whose enthusiasm her own city of Harrisburg is indebted for its progress toward civic beauty. She made this distinction between American and European forestry movements: that the German and other European forest preserves were for timber first and beauty afterward, but that in the United States the love of beautiful places was the motive for setting apart large areas for pure enjoyment.

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Tissot The great French illustrator of the Bible, who died in France last Saturday, won an early fame. He worked both in pen-and-ink and in water-color. His sketches as well as his life were unrestful. In 1871 he joined the Commune. He lived for several years in England, and gradually became affected by the calmer spirit of the Pre-Raphaelites. A fine example of Tissot's first period is his "Faust and Marguerite" (Luxembourg, Paris). Back again in France, he began a series of fifteen pictures, "La Femme à Paris," representing the pursuits of women in the French capital, and one day attended mass at the Church of San Sulpice in order to get suggestions for one of the series. At the elevation of the Host he closed his eyes, and henceforth his whole life in both art and religion was changed. He saw a vision of the Christ. He painted it afterwards in his "Inward Voices." But he felt that he must illustrate its spirit again and again, and in all the events of Christ's earthly life. He would not paint the Jesus of the studios, but the Jesus of Palestine. He went to that country not far from the time of Mr. Holman Hunt's sojourn there. Both men were animated by the same incentive, and now that the Biblical scenes painted by them are before the world, we may judge as to the differences between French and English realism applied to the most sacred of all subjects; we may judge also of the differences between art based on Roman Catholic and art based on Protestant principles. Tissot, though a devout Roman Catholic, offers no trace of dogma in his pictures, yet he frankly accepts certain legends, as for instance that of St. Veronica. In the compelling power of compactness the Tissot pictures will hardly stand alongside the comparative few by Mr. Holman Hunt, but both artists emphasize, in religious painting, the return to nature, fact, accuracy, veracity. If one criticises their works as being sometimes unwarrantedly bound down to detail, one feels, nevertheless, that welcome sense of relief from a previous overemphasis of our Lord's mystical and superhuman life. In the Tissot pictures the real, living boy and man, Jesus, is before us; he breathes, walks, eats, talks, sleeps, broods, advises, plans, is glad, is sorrowful—in a word, he is the Jesus first and foremost of the Here rather than of the Hereafter. Tissot's fame was established in 1896, when he returned from Palestine, exhibiting as a result of his work there over five hundred sketches and drawings. This series, we are proud to say, was recently secured for the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Sciences. A wider education, however, has been accomplished by the inclusion of prints from these pictures in what has become known as "Tissot's Bible." In it each picture is accompanied by an extract from the Gospels on which it is based; in the English edition the extract is printed in our language as well as in the Latin of the Vulgate. In both editions explanatory and archæological notes by the artist supplement the text. During many years Doré's Bible had been a chief adjunct in popularizing sacred history. Tissot's Bible, however, is not only as bold in conception as was Doré's; it is more vivid in

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outline, more remarkable in detail. Above all, it gives evidences of conscience, thought, and inspiration.

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Two Painters

A foremost painter of sea-scenes died last week at Amsterdam, Holland. In this country there are, unfortunately, few pictures by Hendrik Willem Mesdag. In his native country, however, and throughout Europe, this Dutchman's representations of the sea have long been recognized as perhaps the most notable of any produced in the past half-century. Mesdag's pictures were unlike most others; he always painted the sea as if viewing it from a boat and not from the land. Again, he rarely sketched the ocean at rest; overcast skies and threatening storms are the characteristics of his seascapes. Success came rapidly to Mesdag, though he was almost in middle life before deciding to become an artist. The Paris Salon delighted to honor him, and it was there that some of his best-known works were exhibited—the Scheveningen series, "Ready to Weigh Anchor," "A Fleet of Fishing Boats," and "Looking for Anchors;" the "Danger," "Collision," and "Sunrise." Only Courbet has equaled the strength of expression in these pictures.——Later in the week, at Gloucester, Mass., John Henry Twachtman died. If Mesdag was a prince of seascape painting, Twachtman, up to the present at least, has hardly been accounted by most critics more than a minor poet in landscape art. He was a true poet, however, one whose pictures have not yet been appreciated at their real value. This has been due in some degree to the unevenness of his work; some of his canvases are too low in tone and are unintelligibly refined; others by directer interpretation show more popularly the artist's first-hand knowledge of nature. Twachtman was hardly an innovator; as a member of that little but influential organization, "Ten American Painters," he was a plein-airist, or open-air painter of sunlight, influenced by the great French tonalists in general and by Monet in particular. Twachtman was not only a painter; he was also a lovable and vigorous personality. In his positions as instructor at the Art Students' League, New York City, and as master of schools of painting at Greenwich, Conn., and Gloucester, Mass., his winsomeness endeared him to many pupils. He was foremost in condemning the methods once in vogue at the National Academy of Design. He seceded and became a member of the Society of American Artists. Five years ago this society felt the weight of a similar revolt, and John Henry Twachtman was a leader in forming a new society which should exhibit the works of its ten members without the impediment of an Acceptance Committee.

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Three Other Recent Deaths

Within a few days there have died three men picturesquely different yet in varying degree important in the sphere of government. Rudolph von Bennigsen, who died August 7, at the age of eighty-eight, was one of the important constructive powers in the building up of the German Empire. As early as 1859 he was a leader of the movement toward German unity. Though not so widely known as some others, his influence was extraordinary. He had the confidence of Bismarck and justified it by his wisdom and ability. Unlike many other of Bismarck's followers, he retained throughout his life the favor of the present German Emperor and was appointed by him the Administrator of Hanover. For years he was the leader of the National Liberal party, standing between the conservative forces on the one hand and the radical and socialistic on the other.——United States Senator James McMillan, who died on Sunday, was a fairly representatve wealthy American in politics. He was born in Canada in 1838, and entered the United States Senate from Michigan in 1889. He will be remembered best for his influence, as Chairman of the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia, in the preparation and carrying out of the plans for the beautifying of the city of Washington, and, indeed, of the whole District. These plans have already been described in Mr. Baldwin's article in The Outlook for April 5. It was due to Senator McMillan that such unquestioned experts as Messrs. Olmsted and Burnham, and through them Messrs. McKim and St. Gaudens, were appointed to direct the work of improvement.——The Rev. Samuel F. Pearson was at the time of his death the Prohibitionist Sheriff of Cumberland County, Maine. The violation of the prohibitory law in the cities of that State has been

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notorious. Mr. Pearson, who was a Congregational minister, had the courage of his conviction that the law could be enforced, was elected sheriff, and in his official capacity personally supervised raids. His success was but temporary. He was a vivid personification of the Puritan spirit in government, and as such obtained a measure of respect, but not a great deal of effective popular sympathy and support.

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The Proposed Cuban Loan

The Cuban Senate has passed a bill to authorize the issue of bonds to the amount of $35,000,000—$4,000,000 for the relief of the sugar-growers, $8,000,000 or more for "the payment of indebtedness which the revolutionary government itself or through its legitimate representatives may have previously contracted in foreign countries," and a maximum of $23,000,000 for "the payment of the wages of the liberating army in Cuba." The bill stipulates that these bonds shall bear not more than five per cent. interest and be sold for not less than ninety per cent. of their face value, authorizes the Cuban executive to increase customs duties to meet the requirements of the part of the bonds to be issued immediately ($4,000,000), and pledges further legislation before the close of the present session of Congress to meet the interest and create the sinking fund needed for the retirement of the whole loan in not more than thirty years.

This action on the part of the Cuban Senate was reported to the State Department at Washington by Minister Squiers, and at once became the basis of sensational accounts of a conspiracy on the part of the Sugar Trust to destroy the independence of Cuba by "coercing" her into a reckless bond issue. At the same time there came from other quarters vehement demands that the United States should intervene under the Platt Amendment to prevent Cuba from selling the proposed bonds to those who might wish to buy them.

The theory that the Sugar Trust "coerced" the Cuban Senate into voting for the bond issues finds no credence whatever in Havana. The Sugar Trust may secure some fractional part of the $4,000,000 designed primarily for the relief of the sugar-planters, but legislation providing temporary relief to those engaged in this prostrate industry has lately been sanctioned by Great Britain for her West Indian colonies, and cannot, therefore, be regarded as the outcome of a conspiracy in Cuba. This country certainly has no right to complain if the Cubans find a bond issue necessary to aid their sugar-growers in their present distress. The remainder of the issue is for purposes precisely similar to those for which our own first bonds were issued. Our vast domain of unoccupied public lands did, indeed, enable us to fulfill Washington's pledges to the Revolutionary soldiers, but, despite the land grants, the various obligations entered into for the prosecution of the Revolutionary War forced our own country to begin its national career with a funded debt of $75,000,000—or precisely the same debt per capita as is now proposed in Cuba. Furthermore, this indebtedness on our part was assumed when the imports on which we could levy a tariff amounted to only $23,000,000 a year—or barely one-third of the present imports of Cuba. We certainly cannot condemn the younger nation for walking in our own footsteps.

But the more important comments on the Cuban loan relate to our supposed obligation under the Platt Amendment either to prevent the bond issue or to give it a formal sanction amounting almost to a guarantee. The Platt Amendment, it will be recalled, was accepted by the Cubans as a part of their Constitution—accepted, as Senator Platt tells us in the "North American Review" this month, "with the just expectation that compliance with our desire as to her constitutional guarantees would be followed by the establishment of mutual trade relations that would be of great economic advantage to her." One clause in this Platt Amendment which attracted relatively little attention read as follows:

> That said Government [of Cuba] shall not assume or contract any public debt, to pay the interest upon which, and to make reasonable sinking fund provision for the ultimate discharge of which, the ordinary revenues of the island, after defraying the current expenses of the Government, shall be inadequate.

This clause was, indeed, criticised by the opponents of the Platt Amendment, on the ground that it gave the United States

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control over the finances of Cuba and therefore was in violation of our National pledge to establish an independent nation. The supporters of the Platt Amendment, however, generally resented this charge, and insisted that the provision against a bankrupting indebtedness was designed to secure Cuban independence, by preventing an occasion for the seizure of the island by foreign nations in the interests of foreign bondholders. Such, assuredly, was The Outlook's interpretation of the clause when we justified its adoption. In reply to the charge of the Chicago "Times-Herald" that the United States was asserting a degree of "control" over Cuba's finances inconsistent with Cuba's independence, we said:

> It does not propose to exercise any control over Cuba's finances and credit—none whatever. It asks Cuba to agree by treaty with us not to involve herself in debts greater than she can pay, by which course she would render herself liable to seizure for debt and threaten her independence.

The clause may be interpreted as intended either to assure or to destroy Cuban independence. National pride will compel the Cuban courts to interpret it so as to assure Cuban independence. National honor requires our State Department to adopt the same construction.

The United States cannot in honor prevent any Cuban bond issues except such as threaten the stability and independence of her Government. The bond issue proposed is much less than half as great as is carried by Chili or Peru or Portugal or Greece. It is less than many of our State Governments have assumed. Having pledged ourselves to secure the independence of Cuba, we cannot prevent her selling such an issue to willing purchasers. On the other hand, we cannot guarantee the payment of such issues, any more than we can guarantee the payment of bonds issued by our State Governments. Our National Government recognizes that the right of States to incur debts on their own responsibility is essential to complete local self-government, and it must recognize that the independent nation of Cuba has similar rights. Only when the Cuban Congress incurs debts which threaten the stability and independence of the Cuban Republic may the Cuban courts or our own State Department intervene.

Mr. Balfour

On another page Mr. Justin McCarthy, the well-known Irish Liberal patriot, party leader, and historian, gives us his estimate of the new Prime Minister of Great Britain. No appreciation of Mr. Balfour's character and services could be more interesting or instructive than that from a political opponent. We may, nevertheless, remember that Mr. McCarthy's political and religious instincts and training have been more opposed than would be those of the ordinary English Liberal to the party of which Mr. Balfour has been the leader in the House of Commons. Mr. McCarthy's judgments, therefore, should be accepted by our readers with these facts in mind. Even the veteran Irish critic, however, though naturally disapproving some of Mr. Balfour's methods in Ireland and opposing the permanent value of some of his labors there, admits that, on the whole, he accomplished those labors with credit both to himself and his party.

We here repeat our own opinion, that, more than any other Chief Secretary of Ireland, Mr. Balfour may be said to have pacified that island, and to have brought it to whatever prosperity it now shows. At all events, the Land Purchase policy was his in inception and execution. While his experience in Ireland, and since then as First Lord of the Treasury, will be likely to make him more of a home Premier than any one in that office has been since the days of Sir Robert Peel, in foreign affairs also he should succeed equally, for he has an essentially dispassionate mind, urbanity of temperament, together with a touch of that Scotch canniness necessary to success in politics, or, indeed, in any profession. Mr. Balfour's succession to the Premiership is a felicitous event politically, for of all members of Parliament he seems to be the most popular with all parties. Continental politicians were amazed at the patent sincerity of the Opposition applause which greeted the new Prime Minister's first entrance into the House, and at the equally patent sincerity of the Liberal leader's words of welcome to a Conservative chief. Other triumphs are undoubtedly reserved for Mr. Balfour, but few can

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be sweeter to him than the spontaneous tribute from his political adversaries both to his personal character and to his notably dexterous yet straightforward leadership.

Of all British Prime Ministers Mr. Balfour most resembles Gladstone. The two men had marked physical characteristics in common—thinness, spareness, wiriness—but they had still more marked mental characteristics. They were naturally philosophers and theologians before they were politicians. Both had a passion for metaphysics; it is well known that this lay at the foundation of the affection which the elder had for the younger statesman, an affection which no political difference could lessen. The present Premier's "Defense of Philosophic Doubt" and "Foundations of Belief" are works which appeal to all thinking and painstaking men; he once exclaimed, "I consider religion both more interesting and more important than politics." Mr. Balfour's face is even more scholarly than was Gladstone's; it is also a face of peculiar refinement and winsomeness. One instinctively feels that here is a man moved by the fine arts as well as by purely intellectual achievements. In short, no Englishman looks less like a typical John Bull than does Mr. Balfour; in this respect he and Lord Salisbury, his uncle, the retiring Premier, are as far apart as the poles.

In the House of Commons, when not speaking, Mr. Balfour's manner is languid, not to say lackadaisical. He speaks, and instantly every facial lineament has become as alert as are his subtle, incisive, and clear-cut words. He is now keen, quick, deft, but not Gladstone himself had so great a delicacy of touch or charm of style. While his argument is as cogent as it is comprehensive, Mr. Balfour has neither the voice nor the eloquence of the great Liberal leader. Perhaps the most striking single utterance by the present Premier within the past three years was the termination of his speech on the beginning of the Boer War in 1899:

> Now that the prospects of peace are finally destroyed, now that war, with all its consequences, all its loss of life, all its destruction of property, all its inevitable sufferings, is on us, we can say we never asked anything but justice, never desired anything but freedom. All we longed for is the equality under the Transvaal Republic toward men of our race and speech which we freely give to men of the Dutch race and speech in the neighboring colonies, and if they think it worth while to imperil their future in order to refuse these rights, at all events, the blame rests on them and not on us, and we can feel that, whatever we may have to endure before the war is brought to a final conclusive and successful issue, the sacrifices we shall be called upon to make are sacrifices in the interests of the rights of men and of civilization.

Thus a singularly well-equipped protagonist leaps into the arena as a veteran warrior quits it. Never, we believe, has a British Premier entered upon his duties with less friction or with such entirety of good feeling towards him among all parties. This has blinded many to a realization of the burden which rests upon the new Prime Minister. From the full weight of this burden he is saved only by the apparently hopeless factions into which the Opposition is split. Liberal disunion is therefore Tory opportunity. But, in spite of this, the people are getting ready for a change. A few days ago, at the North Leeds election, the Government majority of twenty-five hundred was transformed into a minority of seven hundred. Even so faithful a friend to the party in power as the London "Times" warned it not to proceed drastically with its programme of grain taxes and class favoritism, as shown in the Budget and in the Education Bill. Mr. Balfour therefore needs whatever support he can get from the generous Boer War settlements, from the well-planned meeting of the Colonial Premiers looking towards Imperial Federation, even from clever preferential tariffs and seductive subsidies, in making the country at large accept the two measures for which he himself may have been in no way responsible. We at least prefer to believe that these measures were foisted by extremists upon the unwilling Salisbury Cabinet.

In this juncture it is a matter of interest, not only to the British but to all civilizations, that the new Premier is a man possessing the qualities which we have enumerated. The subtle and mighty forces at work for materialism, in the guise of militarism, commercialism, political and religious tyranny, need to counteract them all the spiritual forces which a man of Mr. Balfour's mold should bring to bear.

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Reading Under the Lash

"She was tumbled early, by accident or design, into a spacious closet of good old English reading, without much selection or prohibition, and browsed at will upon that fair and wholesome pasturage."

Such is Charles Lamb's account of the education of his sister Mary, and these words recall the spontaneous reading of the English classics which was so important a factor in the molding of many of the finest of the nineteenth-century minds.

The boy of to-day is reading widely; and the increasing army of city boys with their scant playgrounds are more extensive readers perhaps than any previous generation. The juvenile reading taste, moreover, has become a factor in the publishers' market, and a distinctive juvenile literature in book and magazine is thriving in America. This fact has tended to lower the quality of the boy's reading, and his teacher is not infrequently surprised by his utter ignorance concerning the great formative books under whose influence every boy should come. An obdurately unliterary taste has too often been developed.

This decline of the school-boy's interest in standard books has confronted his teacher as a serious problem. But with the recent progress of educational science there has been a growing endeavor to solve all such problems according to the system, to bring all phases of the child's activity into relation with the system. As each phase of the child's endeavor is to be directed by a skillful teacher, so even the boy's reading has been taken in charge by his schoolmaster, and has been shaped to a pedagogically wise pattern, which, unfortunately, is not all wise, and which can provide only for majorities, and not for individuals. Home-reading books have been selected and published by educational publishers. Conscientious teachers of English, likewise, have chosen books for each grade of mind in their schools. Now, the system of required home reading has its undoubted advantages where wisely administered, in that it directs the child to the best in juvenile literature and counteracts his taste for trivial reading, but when unwisely administered, as an unalterable part of a rigid system, home reading becomes a tyranny over the child, and if he rebels against its irksomeness he is often driven to his reading, metaphorically speaking, by the lash. No matter at what cost of weariness to himself, he must conform, and must be able to report the completion of his literary job. Under such circumstances many a boy comes to hate the books that are made his instruments of torture.

The system of compulsory home reading in our schools has arisen, not only from the flood of juvenile books, but from the overcrowding of our primary and secondary curriculum, and in this matter the children in the better educational institutions have usually suffered most. Modern languages, elements of science, the beginnings of history, and composition work have been pressed upon the child's overloaded shoulders. His out-of-school hours have been claimed by excessive lessons. His evenings, which were formerly devoted to reading and games, are now demanded by his set tasks. Under such circumstances he has ceased his natural and spontaneous reading, but his teacher has immediately made his reading a part of the system, and thus what had formerly been the boy's chief pleasure has become a nightmare. His reading is no longer joyous and voluntary; it has become task-work. It means dreary hours of sleepy-eyed drudging stolen from the time of rest and recreation. Such reading is vitiating. The spontaneous joy in books is suppressed. The kindling ardor, the fine imaginative quickening, the stirring of the heart, have ceased. The boy drones over his "Robinson Crusoe." It is not a matter of wonder that the child revolts from the books which should be a genuine pleasure to him. The system has defeated its own purpose, and probably will continue to do so as long as abnormally high pressure in education is maintained.

We can scarcely hope for any sudden and effective relaxation of the pressure. Nor under the circumstances would it be wise to withdraw the home-reading course from the system. The remedy must come in the wise and conscientious co-operation of parent and teacher in removing the sting of compulsion. The child needs their guidance in the choice of his reading, but he needs still more their sympathy. The guidance should

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be intelligent and appreciative of the capacity and the taste of the child. The system should be made elastic and human by them, not rigid and scientific.

The teacher on the one hand is bound by certain obligations to the system, and is still further perplexed by the varying demands of his numerous pupils. It requires both tact and courage to assert a wise freedom in the former. And for the latter the teacher needs an insight into the individual character of each pupil and sympathetic interest in their development. He must direct the reading to their personal needs, and must not allow himself nor others to fix certain books for certain grades of scholastic advance. The literary tastes of the children in a single class will vary widely, according to home surroundings, native endowments, previous reading, and inherent bent of character. All the teacher's skill will be required in adjusting the reading adapted to each pupil. And perhaps his wisest choice cannot be demanded of the dullard of the class. Even when the book is assigned, the teacher's task is not over, for he must use great tact in coercing the reading he has so chosen. Coercion is probably justified as an antidote to indolence on the part of the child. But coercion in a task which, either because of the tastes or the capacities of the student, has proven unsuitable, is always injurious, and effectively prevents the formation of any real literary capacities.

To be prepared to meet such duties the teacher must be a constant and interested reader of the books he is demanding his pupils to read. He must know and enjoy his "Robinson Crusoe" and "Alice in Wonderland," his "Being a Boy" and "Little Women." His knowledge of juvenile literature should not be merely a shadowy reminiscence. The teacher who has ceased to read the grade of books which make a normal appeal to the immature minds of his pupils is beginning to lose his usefulness. For he owes to his students not merely to tell them the titles of the books to be read, but to stimulate them and sympathize with them from his own vital interest. Many a teacher has been kept fresh for his professional work by his reading of children's books.

But the parent also has an obligation in the matter, an obligation the greater inasmuch as his personal relation is the nearer and his knowledge of the child the more intimate. The parent must supplement the defective system by studying its adaptations to his child and by helping to kindle the enthusiasm of the child in the book he is reading. Several years ago a woman of many social responsibilities read widely in books for girls that she might be a companion to her eight-year-old daughter. Her determination to let the child read nothing which she herself had not previously read was wise in that it was based on a loving determination not to bend to a pattern, but to develop normally and unwastingly the child's mind. The instance was sufficiently rare, amid the varied demands of the present social life, to excite approving surprise among her friends. But is not the same obligation resting upon every parent? If there is any error in the teacher's demand, it may be met by a kind and helpful protest. The required books, however, are ordinarily well selected, and the parent's chief task will be to relieve the tedium and irksomeness of set task-work, and this might often be done by reading aloud and enjoying with the child, thus converting drudgery into play.

The child's reading should be pleasurable to him, he should find a compensating enjoyment in each book, and only such books as will afford that compensation should be chosen.

The worst feature of the task-driven reading is that it kills all joy. It kills the habit of spontaneous reading. It trains to dull routine, irresponsive following of the lines of the book, and thus interferes with the greatest educative value of books. It endangers the capacity for literary culture.

Fortunately, many children contrive to make their escape from the system, and they will doubtless form an appreciative public for the great books of the future. The children left to their own devices will escape the abuses of the system, while the victims of home-reading courses too rigidly applied may in time outgrow the evil influences to which they have been subjected.

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ARTHUR JAMES BALFOUR

By Justin McCarthy

Author of "A History of Our Own Times," "The Story of Gladstone's Life," etc., etc.

This article is the first in a series of studies and estimates of living British statesmen by Mr. McCarthy. It will be followed by a similar article on Lord Salisbury, which will appear, with illustrations, in the September Magazine Number of The Outlook. Other articles of this series will deal with John Morley, James Bryce, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Henry Labouchere, Sir William Harcourt, the Earl of Aberdeen, John Burns, and perhaps others. We need hardly say to our readers, who remember with pleasure "The Story of Gladstone's Life" by Mr. McCarthy, which appeared in the columns of The Outlook, to say nothing of his "History of Our Own Times," than which no book of its character has been more widely read in this country, and his extremely entertaining "Reminiscences," that Mr. McCarthy's long knowledge of English political affairs and his facility and brilliance as a writer will make these sketches notable in their treatment, as they certainly are important in their immediate human interest.—THE EDITORS.

MY first acquaintance with Mr. Arthur J. Balfour, who has just become Prime Minister of King Edward VII., was made in the earliest days of my experience as a member of the House of Commons. The Fourth Party, as it was called, had just been formed under the inspiration of the late Lord Randolph Churchill. The Fourth Party was a new political enterprise. The House of Commons up to that time contained three regular and recognized political parties—the supporters of the Government, the supporters of the Opposition, and the members of the Irish Nationalist party, of whom I was one. Lord Randolph Churchill created a Fourth Party, the business of which was to act independently alike of the Government, the Opposition, and the Irish Nationalists. At the time when I entered Parliament the Conservatives were in power, and Conservative statesmen occupied the Treasury Bench. The members of Lord Randolph's party were all Conservatives so far as general political principles were concerned, but Lord Randolph's idea was to lead a number of followers who should be prepared and ready to speak and vote against any Government proposal which they believed to be too Conservative or not Conservative enough; to support the Liberal Opposition in the rare cases when they thought the Opposition was in the right; and to support the Irish Nationalists when they believed that these were unfairly dealt with, or when they believed, which happened much more frequently, that to support the Irishmen would be an annoyance to the party in power.

The Fourth Party was made up of numbers exactly corresponding with the title which had been given to it. Four men, including the leader, constituted the whole strength of this little army. These men were Lord Randolph Churchill, Arthur J. Balfour, John Gorst (now Sir John Gorst), and Sir Henry Drummond Wolff, who has during more recent years withdrawn altogether from Parliamentary life and given himself up to diplomacy, in which he has won much honorable distinction. Sir John Gorst, a man of great ability and acquirements, which have been somewhat thrown away in the recent business of administration, holds office in the present Government, and is believed to have given and felt little satisfaction in his official career. The Fourth Party certainly did much to make the House of Commons a lively place during the course of its operations. Its members were always in attendance—the whole four of them—and no one ever knew where, metaphorically, to place them. They professed and made manifest open scorn for the conventionalities of party life, and the Parliamentary whips never knew when they could be regarded as supporters or opponents. They were all effective debaters, all ready with sarcasm and invective, all sworn foes to dullness and routine, all delighting in any opportunity for obstructing and bewildering the party which happened to be in power. The members of the Fourth Party had each of them a distinct individuality, although

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they invariably acted together and were never separated in the division lobbies. A member of the House of Commons likened them once in a speech to D'Artagnan and his Three Musketeers, as pictured in the immortal pages of the elder Dumas. John Gorst he described as Porthos, Sir Henry Drummond Wolff as Athos, and Arthur Balfour as the sleek and subtle Aramis. When I entered Parliament, I was brought much into companionship with the members of this interesting Fourth Party. One reason for this habit of intercourse was that we sat very near to one another on the benches of the House. The members of the Irish Nationalist party then, as now, always sat on the side of the Opposition, no matter what Government happened to be in power, for the principle of the Irish Nationalists is to regard themselves as in perpetual opposition to every Government so long as Ireland is deprived of her own national legislature. Soon after I entered the House a Liberal Government was the result of a general election, and the Fourth Party, as habitually Conservative, sat on the Opposition benches. The Fourth Party gave frequent support to the Irish Nationalists in their endeavors to resist and obstruct Government measures, and we therefore came into habitual intercourse, and even comradeship, with Lord Randolph Churchill and his small band of followers.

Arthur Balfour bore little resemblance, in appearance, in manners, in debating qualities, and apparently in mold of intellect, to any of the three men with whom he was then constantly allied. He was tall, slender, pale, graceful, with something of an almost feminine attractiveness in his bearing, although he was as ready, resolute, and stubborn a fighter as any one of his companions in arms. He had the appearance and the ways of a thoughtful student and scholar, and one would have associated him rather with a college library or a professor's chair than with the rough and boisterous ways of the House of Commons. He seemed to have come from another world of thought and feeling into that eager, vehement, and sometimes rather uproarious political assembly. Unlike his uncle, Lord Salisbury, he was known to enjoy social life, but he was especially given to that select order of æsthetic social life which was "sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought," a form of life which was rather fashionable in society just then. But it must have been clear even to the most superficial observer that he had a decided gift of parliamentary capacity. He was a fluent and a ready speaker, and could bear an effective part in any debate at a moment's notice, but he never declaimed, never indulged in any flight of eloquence, and seldom raised his clear and musical voice much above the conversational pitch. His choice of language was always happy and telling, and he often expressed himself in characteristic phrases which lived in the memory and passed into familiar quotation. He had won some distinction as a writer by his "Defense of Philosophic Doubt," by a volume of "Essays and Addresses," and more lately by his work "The Foundations of Belief." The first and last of these books were inspired by a graceful and easy skepticism which had in it nothing particularly destructive to the faith of any believer, but was only aimed at the not difficult task of proving that a doubting ingenuity can raise curious cavils from the practical and argumentative point of view against one creed as well as against another. The world did not take these skeptical ventures very seriously, and they were for the most part regarded as the attempts of a clever young man to show how much more clever he was than the ordinary run of believing mortals. Balfour's style was clear and vigorous, and people read the essays because of the writer's growing position in political life and out of curiosity to see how the rising young statesman could display himself as the skeptical advocate of philosophic skepticism.

Arthur Balfour took a conspicuous part in the attack made upon the Liberal Government in 1882 on the subject of the once famous Kilmainham Treaty. The action which he took in this instance was avowedly inspired by a desire to embarrass and oppose the Government because of the compromise into which it had endeavored to enter with Charles Stewart Parnell for some terms of agreement as to the manner in which legislation in Ireland ought to be administered. The full history of what was called the Kilmainham Treaty has not, so far as

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I know, been ever correctly given to the public, and it is not necessary, when surveying the political career of Mr. Balfour, to enter into any lengthened explanation on the subject. Mr. Parnell was in prison at the time when the arrangement was begun, and those who were in his confidence were well aware that he was becoming greatly alarmed as to the state of Ireland under the rule of the late W. E. Forster, who was then Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant, and under whose operations leading Irishmen were thrown into prison on no definite charge, but because their general conduct left them open in the mind of the Chief Secretary to the suspicion that their public agitation was likely to bring about a rebellious movement. Parnell began to fear that the state of the country would become worse and worse if every popular movement were to be forcibly repressed at the time when the leaders in whom the Irish people had full confidence were kept in prison and their guidance, control, and authority withdrawn from the work of pacification. The proposed arrangement, whether begun by Mr. Parnell himself or suggested to him by members of his own party or of the English Radical party, was simply an understanding that if the leading Irishmen were allowed to return to their public work the country might at least be kept in peace while English Liberalism was devising some measures for the better government of Ireland. The arrangement was in every sense creditable alike to Parnell and to the English Liberals who were anxious to co-operate with him in such a purpose. But it led to some disturbance in Mr. Gladstone's Government and to Mr. Forster's resignation of his office. In 1885, when the Conservatives again came into power and formed a Government, Balfour was appointed President of the Local Government Board and afterwards became Chief Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant—in other words, Chief Secretary for Ireland. He had to attempt a difficult, or rather, it should be said, an impossible task, and he got through it about as well as, or as badly as, any other man could have done whose appointed mission was to govern Ireland on Tory principles, for the interests of the landlords, and by the policy of coercion.

Balfour, it should be said, was never, even at that time, actually unpopular with the Irish National party. We all understood quite well that his own heart did not go with the sort of administrative work which was put upon him; his manners were always courteous, agreeable, and graceful; he had a keen, quiet sense of humor, was on good terms personally with the leading Irish members, and never showed any inclination to make himself needlessly or wantonly offensive to his opponents. He was always readily accessible to any political opponent who had any suggestion to make, and his term of office as Chief Secretary, although of necessity quite unsuccessful for any practical good, left no memories of rancor behind it in the minds of those whom he had to oppose and to confront. More lately he became First Lord of the Treasury and Leader of the House of Commons, and the remainder of his public career is too well known to call for any detailed description here. My object in this article is rather to give a living picture of the man himself as we all saw him in public life than to record in historical detail the successive steps by which he ascended to his present high position, or rather, it should be said, of the successive events which brought that place within his reach and made it necessary for him to accept it. For it is only fair to say that, so far as outer observers could judge, Mr. Balfour never made his career a struggle for high positions. So clever and gifted a man must naturally have had some ambition in the public field to which he had devoted so absolutely his time and his talents. But he seemed, so far as one could judge, to have in him none of the self-seeking qualities which are commonly seen in the man whose purpose is to make his Parliamentary work the means of arriving at the highest post in the government of the State. On the contrary, his whole demeanor seemed to be rather that of one who is devoting himself unwillingly to a career not quite congenial. He always appeared to me to be essentially a man of literary, scholarly, and even retiring tastes, who has a task forced upon him which he does not feel quite able to decline, and who therefore strives to make the best of a career which he has not chosen, but from which he does not

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feel at liberty to turn away. Most men who have attained the same political position give one the idea that they feel a positive delight in Parliamentary life and warfare, and that nature must have designed them for that particular field and for none other. The joy in the strife which men like Palmerston, like Disraeli, and like Gladstone evidently felt never showed itself in the demeanor of Arthur Balfour. There was always something in his manner which spoke of a shy and shrinking disposition, and he never appeared to enter into debate for the mere pleasure of debating. He gave the idea of one who would much rather not make a speech were he altogether free to please himself in the matter, and as if he were only constraining himself to undertake a duty which most of those around him were but too glad to have an opportunity of attempting.

There are instances, no doubt, of men gifted with an absolute genius for eloquent speech who have had no natural inclination for debate, and would rather have been free from any necessity for entering into the war of words. I have heard John Bright say that he would never make a speech if he did not feel it a duty imposed upon him, and that he would never enter the House of Commons if he felt free to keep away from its debates. Yet Bright was a born orator, and was, on the whole, I think, the greatest public and Parliamentary orator I have ever heard in England, not excluding even Gladstone himself. Bright had all the physical qualities of the orator. He had a commanding presence and a voice of the most marvelous intonation, capable of expressing in musical sound every emotion which lends itself to eloquence—the impassioned, the indignant, the pathetic, the appealing, and the humorous. Then I can recall an instance of another man, not, indeed, endowed with Bright's superb oratorical gifts, but who had to spend the greater part of his life since he attained the age of manhood in the making of speeches within and outside the House of Commons. I am thinking now of Charles Stewart Parnell. I know well that Parnell would never have made a speech if he could have avoided the task, and that he even felt a nervous dislike to the mere putting of a question in the House. But no one would have known from Bright's manner when he took part in a great debate that he was not obeying in congenial mood the full instinct and inclination of a born orator. Nor would a stranger have guessed from Parnell's clear, self-possessed, and precise style of speaking that he was putting a severe constraint upon himself when he made up his mind to engage in Parliamentary debate. There is something in Arthur Balfour's manner as a speaker which occasionally reminds me of Parnell and his style. The two men had the same quiet, easy, and unconcerned fashion of utterance, always choosing the most appropriate word and finding it without apparent difficulty; each man seemed, as I have already said of Balfour, to be thinking aloud rather than trying to convince the listeners; each man spoke as if resolved not to waste any words or to indulge in any appeal to the mere emotions of the audience. But the natural reluctance to take any part in debate was always more conspicuous in the manner of Balfour than even in that of Parnell.

Balfour is a man of many and varied tastes and pursuits. He is an advocate of athleticism, and is especially distinguished for his devotion to the game of golf. He obtained at one time a certain reputation in London society because of the interest he took in some peculiar phases of fanciful intellectual inventiveness. He was for a while a leading member, if not the actual inventor, of a certain order of psychical research whose members were described as The Souls. More than one novelist of the day made picturesque use of this singular order and enlivened the pages of fiction by fancy portraits of its leading members. Such facts as these did much to prevent Balfour from being associated in the public mind with only the rivalries of political parties and the incidents of Parliamentary warfare. One sometimes came into social circles where Balfour was regarded chiefly as the man of literary tastes and somewhat eccentric intellectual developments. All this cast a peculiar reflection over his career as a politician, and filled many observers with the idea that he was only playing at Parliamentary life and that his other occupations were the genuine realities for him. Even to this day there are some who

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persist in believing that Balfour, despite his prolonged and unvarying attention to his Parliamentary duties, has never given his heart to the prosaic and practical work of administrative office and the business of maintaining his political party. Yet it has always had to be acknowledged that no man attended more carefully and more closely to such work when he had to do it, and that the most devoted worshiper of political success could not have been more regular and constant in his attention to the business of the House of Commons. People said that he was lazy by nature, that he loved long hours of sleep and of general rest, and that he detested the methodical and mechanical routine of official work. But I have not known any Minister of State who was more easy of approach and more ready to enter into the driest details of departmental business than Arthur Balfour. I may say, too, that, wherever appeal was made to him to forward any good work or to do any act of kindness, he was always to be found at his post and was ever ready to lend a helping hand if he could.

I remember one instance of this kind which I have no hesitation in mentioning, although I am quite sure Mr. Balfour had little inclination for its obtaining publicity. Some two or three years ago it was brought to my knowledge that an English literary woman who had won much and deserved distinction as a novel-writer had been for some time sinking into ill health, had been therefore prevented from going on with her work, and had in the meantime been perplexed by worldly difficulties and embarrassments which interfered sadly with her prospects and made her a subject of well-merited sympathy. Some friends of the authoress were naturally anxious, if possible, to give her a helping hand, and the idea occurred to them that she would be a most fitting recipient of assistance to be bestowed by a department of the State. One of her friends, himself a distinguished novelist, who happened to be also a friend of mine, spoke to me with this object, assuming that, as an old Parliamentary hand, I knew more than most writers of books would be likely to know about the manner in which such help might be obtained. There is in England a fund—a very small fund, truly—at the disposal of the Government for the help of deserving authors who happen to be in distress. This fund is at the disposal of the First Lord of the Treasury, the office which was then, as now, held by Arthur Balfour. I was still at that time a member of the House of Commons, and my friend suggested that, as I knew something about the whole business, I might be a suitable person to represent the case to the First Lord of the Treasury and make appeal for his assistance. My friend's belief was that the application might come with more effect from one who had been for a long time a member of Parliament, and whose name would therefore be known to the First Lord of the Treasury, than from a literary man who had nothing to do with Parliamentary life. Nothing could give me greater pleasure than to become the medium through which the appeal might be brought under the notice of the First Lord, but I felt some difficulty and doubt because of the conditions of the time. England was then in the most distracting period of the South African war. We were hearing every day of fresh mishaps and disasters in the campaign. Arthur Balfour was Leader of the House of Commons, and had to deal every day with questions, with demands for explanation, with arguments and debates turning on the events of the war. It seemed to me to be rather a venturesome enterprise to attempt to gain the attention of a Minister thus perplexingly occupied for a matter of merely private and individual concern. I feared that an overworked statesman might feel naturally inclined to remit the subject to the care of some mere official, and that time might thus be lost and the needed helping hand be long delayed. I undertook the task, however, and I wrote to Mr. Balfour at once. I received the very next day a reply written in Mr. Balfour's own hand, expressing his cordial willingness to consider the subject, his sympathy with the purpose of the appeal, and his hope that some help might be given to the distressed novelist. Mr. Balfour promptly took the matter in hand, and the result was that a grant was made from the State fund to secure the novelist against any actual distress. Now, I do not want to make too much of this act of ready kindness done by Mr. Balfour. The appeal was made for a most deserving object; the fund from which help was to

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be given was entirely at Mr. Balfour's disposal; and it is probable that any other First Lord in the same circumstances would have come to the same decision. But how easy it would have been for Mr. Balfour to put the whole matter into the hands of some subordinate, and not to add a new trouble to his own intensely busy life at such an exciting crisis by entering into the close consideration of a mere question of State beneficence! I certainly should not have been surprised if I had not received an answer to my letter for several days after I had sent it, and if even then it had come from some subordinate in the Government department. But in the midst of all his incessant and distracting occupations at a most exciting period of public business Mr. Balfour found time to consider the question himself, to reply with his own hand, and to see that the desired help was promptly accorded. I must say that I think this short passage of personal history speaks highly for the kindly nature and the sympathetic promptitude of Arthur Balfour.

For a long time there had been much speculation in these countries concerning the probable successor to Lord Salisbury, whenever Lord Salisbury should make up his mind to resign the position of Prime Minister. We all knew that that resignation was sure to come soon, although very few of us had any idea that it was likely to come quite so soon. The general opinion was that the country would not be expected, for some time at least, to put up again with a Prime Minister in the House of Lords. If, therefore, the new Prime Minister had to be found in the House of Commons, there seemed to be only a choice between two men, Arthur Balfour and Joseph Chamberlain. It would be hard to find two men in the House of Commons more unlike each other in characteristic qualities and in training than these two. They are both endowed with remarkable capacity for political life and for Parliamentary debate, "but there," as Byron says concerning two of whom one was a Joseph, "I doubt all likeness ends between the pair." Balfour is an aristocrat of aristocrats; Chamberlain is essentially a man of the British middle class—even what is generally called the lower middle class. Balfour has gone through all the regular course of university education; Chamberlain was for a short time at University College School in London, a popular institution of modern origin which does most valuable educational work, but is not largely patronized by the classes who claim aristocratic position. Balfour is a constant reader and student of many literatures and languages; "Mr. Chamberlain," according to a leading article in a London daily newspaper, "to put it mildly, is not a bookworm." Balfour loves open-air sports and is a votary of athleticism; Chamberlain never takes any exercise, even walking exercise, when he can possibly avoid the trouble. Balfour is an æsthetic lover of all the arts; Chamberlain has never, so far as I know, given the slightest indication of interest in any artistic subject. Balfour is by nature a modest and retiring man; Chamberlain is always "Pushful Joe." The stamp and character of a successful municipal politician are always evident in Chamberlain, while Balfour seems to be above all other things the university scholar and member of high society. I suppose it must have been a profound disappointment to Chamberlain that he was not offered the place of Prime Minister, but it would be hardly fair to expect that such a place would not be offered to the First Lord of the Treasury and Leader of the House of Commons, even if that First Lord did not happen to be a nephew of the retiring Prime Minister.

It would be idle just now to enter into any speculation as to whether Mr. Arthur Balfour will long continue to hold the office. If he should make up his mind, as was at one time thought possible by many observers, to accept a peerage and become Prime Minister in the House of Lords, such a step would undoubtedly be a means of pacifying the partisans of Chamberlain, for Chamberlain would then become, almost as a matter of course, the Leader of the Conservative Government in the House of Commons, and this elevation might well satisfy his ambition and give his pushful energy work enough to do. But the country has of late become less and less satisfied with the practice of having a Prime Minister removed from the center of active life and hidden away in the enervating atmosphere of the House of Lords. The friends of Mr. Balfour are naturally inclined to hope and

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believe that he will not bury himself in such a living tomb. His path will in any case be perplexed by many difficulties and obstructions. My own impression is that the inevitable reaction is destined to come before long. The next general election may prove that the country at large is tired of a Conservative Administration. The public mind will soon get over the feverish excitement created by the South African War, and people will begin to remember that England had won battles and annexed territory before there ever was a Transvaal Republic, and found then, as she will find now, that successes abroad do not relieve her from the necessity of managing successfully her business at home. It has to be borne in mind, too, that the House of Commons does not really originate anything in the work of important legislation. The best business of the Liberal party begins outside the House of Commons—begins with the people, and with those who take an interest in the welfare of the people and have brains and foresight enough to find out how it can be most thoroughly promoted. All great reforms have their origin outside the House of Commons, and are only taken up by the House of Commons when it is felt that the popular demand is so earnest that it must receive serious consideration. The country will soon begin to realize the fact that, shamefully mismanaged as the War Department may have been during the recent campaigns, the War Department is not by any means the only national institution which needs the strong hand of reform. The spirited foreign policy has had its innings, and the condition of the people at home must have its turn very soon. The Liberal party has its work cut out for it, and where there is the work to be done a Liberal party will be found to do it. So far as I can read the signs of the times, I am encouraged to hope that a great opportunity is waiting for the Liberal party, and I cannot see the slightest reason to doubt that a Liberal party will be found ready for the opportunity and equal to it. A Tory Prime Minister has, indeed, before now had the judgment and the energy to forestall the Liberal party in the great work of domestic reform, but I do not believe that even the warmest admirers of Mr. Balfour imagine that he is quite the man to undertake such an enterprise. Arthur Balfour is, according to my judgment, the best man for the place to be found in the Conservative ranks at present, but I do not suppose that he is destined just now to be anything more than a stop-gap. I admire his great and varied abilities, I recognize his brilliant debating powers, and I have felt the charm of his genial and graceful manners, but I do not believe him capable of maintaining the present administration against the rising force of a Liberal reaction.

The Isles of Quiet

By John Vance Cheney

The Isles of Quiet lie beyond the years.
Hoar prophets say it; yet, for all the tears,
I doubt the saying of the seers.

I think that whoso seeks them here shall find;
That all with open, patient heart and mind
Shall drink their peace from sun and wind.

I think who will may share their psalm, begun
The hour when summer day is done
And sky and field are growing one.

I know the foolish fancies fondest cling;
But I believe the still air's murmuring,
The sweet far thing the thrushes sing.

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The Tragedy of Pelée

VIII.—The Destruction of St. Pierre

By George Kennan

IN the preceding articles of this series I have tried to describe, as fully and accurately as possible, the appearance and behavior of Mont Pelée during the time that it was under my observation. It is my purpose now to give a brief account of the destruction of St. Pierre; to bring together and compare the statements of a dozen or more persons who witnessed the catastrophe; and to make an attempt, at least, to answer the questions, "What happened? In what way did it happen?" and "What were the proximate causes?" The explanation of the disaster that seems to me most probable is not the one adopted by a majority of the geologists who visited Martinique, and it is quite likely, therefore, to be erroneous. If, however, I try to account for the phenomena at all, I must do so in the way that best commends itself to my judgment; and if I am forced to disagree with observers so eminent as Professor Heilprin and Mr. Hill, I do so with the frank acknowledgment that they are far more likely to be right than I am. With the views of Professor Russell, so far as he has given expression to them, I am in full accord.

Mont Pelée has been active only once before within historic times. On the 5th of August, 1851, it rumbled or thundered for a few hours, and threw up a column of vapor which sprinkled ashes over its southwestern face from St. Pierre to Prêcheur; but the eruption was neither violent nor destructive, and soon subsided. A scientific commission, which made a careful examination of the mountain shortly afterward, found a few small craterlets and hot springs near the source of the Rivière Blanche, and a deep, narrow fissure—since known as the Fente, or Terre Fendue—which seemed to cut the top of the mountain into halves just west of Lake Palmiste; but the area of disturbance was small and the manifestations of activity were comparatively feeble. The Étang Sec, or Dry Lake, was found to be situated a short distance east of the craterlets and hot springs, at a height of 2,871 feet. Its basin, although ordinarily dry, then contained five times as much water as the basin of Lake Palmiste, on the summit, and both lakes were thought to be the bowls of ancient craters.

As the result of its examination, the commission reported that the volcanic disturbance had been confined to a small area in the upper valley of the Rivière Blanche; that there had been no perceptible change in the configuration of the mountain; that the old craters, Étang Sec and Lake Palmiste, were full of water; and that no danger was to be apprehended.

For half a century thereafter the volcano remained quiescent; and Lake Palmiste, the basin of the ancient summit crater, became a favorite place of resort for excursionists and picnic parties from St. Pierre. The basin of the Étang Sec was not so often visited, on account of its comparative inaccessibility; but it could be seen from the heights above; it had been overgrown by vegetation; and it was generally dry.

The first signs of a renewal of volcanic activity were observed in April of the present year. M. Landes, professor of natural sciences in the St. Pierre Lycée, noticed steaming fumaroles in the upper valley of the Rivière Blanche as early as April 2; but there was nothing like an eruption until the 25th, when the volcano suddenly began to smoke and throw out ashes. A party of investigators set out at once from St. Pierre, and upon reaching the summit of Morne Lacroix—a pinnacle of the volcano which overlooks Lake Palmiste on one side and the Etang Sec on the other—discovered that the basin of the Dry Lake was filling with water. A few days later a larger party, consisting of Messrs. Boulin, Waddy, Decord, Bouteuil, Ange, and Berte, ascended the mountain, by way, apparently, of the Ri-

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vière Blanche, and, after struggling for an hour through a dense, tangled forest, came out on the very brink of the Étang Sec basin. They found it to be a gigantic bowl, half a mile in diameter, with a lake at the bottom and a new cinder-cone on one side of it near the eastern wall. The trees around the bowl were covered with black volcanic dust, and there was a film of floating cinders on the surface of the water. No eruption from the cinder-cone took place while the party was watching it, but Messrs. Boulin and Berte believed it to be the source of the smoke and ashes seen on the 25th. Professor Landes, on the other hand, who climbed nearly to the Etang Sec a few days later, thought that the smoke rose from the Fente, or cleft, first noticed by the scientific commission of 1852. All observers agreed that the manifestations of activity were at the highest part of the volcano, between the Etang Sec and Lake Palmiste, and no one appears to have noticed anything that indicated a fissure in the gorge of the Rivière Blanche, or an opening in the place now occupied by the lower crater.

Vapor continued to rise from the volcano at intervals on the 28th and 29th of April, and on the 30th there were occasional detonations and two or three slight earth-tremors. On the 2d of May the inhabitants of Prêcheur were frightened by a heavy and continuous shower of ashes; but the people of St. Pierre were so little alarmed that they planned and advertised a popular excursion to the new crater, to take place on Sunday, May 4. At 11:30 that night, however, there was a violent eruption, accompanied by dense smoke, lightning, and terrifying detonations, and the country people fled, from all parts of the mountain, to Prêcheur, Morne Rouge, and St. Pierre. Ashes fell over the whole northern half of the island from Grande Rivière to Fort de France, and continued to fall on the western slope of the volcano throughout Saturday, May 3. The people of St. Pierre then began to take alarm. The worshipers in the cathedral became panic-stricken; all the schools and many of the stores were closed; the proposed excursion to the crater was abandoned, and there was a general feeling of anxiety and apprehension.

The renewal of volcanic activity was accompanied by heavy rains on the summit of the mountain, which filled up the colossal bowl of the Étang Sec and sent floods of ash-laden, chocolate-colored water down the valleys of all the rivers between St. Pierre and Prêcheur. On the 5th of May, a little after noon, the lower bank of the Étang Sec was blown out by a volcanic explosion, or gave way under the increased pressure of water, and the whole lake suddenly rushed down the side of the mountain, from a height of nearly three thousand feet. In its fall it carried away trees, immense rocks, and thousands of tons of ashes, and by the time it reached the lower slopes it had become an avalanche of liquid ash-mud. Moving with the speed of an express train, it struck the big sugar-mill of Guérin & Son, at the mouth of the Rivière Blanche; swept it completely out of existence, with young Guérin and thirty other persons; and then plunged into the sea, overwhelming and sinking two yachts that were lying there at anchor, and raising a tidal wave which flooded the lower streets of St. Pierre and washed over all the beaches between Grande Rivière and Fort de France. This catastrophe greatly alarmed the people of St. Pierre, and they began to leave the city at the rate of three hundred per day. Thousands of fugitives, however, flocked in from Prêcheur, Ste. Philomene, Morne Rouge, and other villages on the flanks of the volcano, so that the population was increased rather than diminished.

On the morning of the 7th there was another eruption, accompanied by lightning, heavy explosions, and the appearance of incandescent matter at the edge of the summit-fissure. This greatly increased the feeling of apprehension in St. Pierre, and every boat leaving for Fort de France that day was crowded with fugitives. The local newspaper, however ("Les Colonies"), deprecated the panic; declared that the alarm was not justified; and said, on the very eve of the catastrophe, "Mont Pelée is no more to be feared by St. Pierre than Vesuvius is feared by Naples. We confess that we cannot understand this panic. Where could one be better off than at St. Pierre?"

Some observers, however, who were familiar with Vesuvius, took a different view. In the roadstead off the city lay

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at anchor, that very day, the Italian barque Orsolina, Captain Marino Leboffe, loading with sugar for Havre. Alarmed by the threatening appearance of the volcano, Captain Leboffe went to the shippers and said to them that he did not regard that roadstead as a safe place to be, and that he had decided to stop loading and sail for Havre.

"But," objected the shippers, "you can't go yet; you haven't got half your cargo aboard."

"That doesn't make any difference," replied the captain; "I'd rather sail with half a cargo than run such a risk as a man must run here."

The shippers assured him that Mont Pelée was not dangerous; that it had thrown out smoke and ashes in the same way once before, without doing any damage; and that, in all probability, it wouldn't remain active a week. Even if it should, smoke and ashes couldn't hurt anybody.

"I don't know anything about Mont Pelée," said Captain Leboffe, "but if Vesuvius were looking as your volcano looks this morning, I'd get out of Naples; and I'm going to get out of here."

The shippers then became angry and told him that if he sailed without permission and with only half a cargo, he would get no clearance papers, and would be arrested as soon as he reached Havre.

"All right!" replied the imperturbable captain; "I'll take my chance of arrest, but I won't take any chances on that volcano. I'm going to get my anchor up and make sail just as soon as I get aboard." He bade them good-by and left them. The shippers then sent two customs officers to the barque, with instructions to stay on board and prevent her from leaving. The captain said to these officers: "Gentlemen, I'm going to sail from this port in less than an hour. If you want to go ashore, now is your time to do it. If you stay with me, I assure you I shall take you to France."

When the sails were loosed, and the crew began to heave up the anchor, the customs officers hailed a passing boat and went ashore, threatening the captain with all the penalties of the law.

Twenty-four hours later the shippers and the customs officers lay dead in the ruins of St. Pierre, and the barque Orsolina was far at sea, on her way to France.[1]

When the morning of May 8 dawned, bright and sunshiny, there was nothing in the appearance of the volcano to excite apprehension except the immense column of vapor rising from the main crater. This was going to an unusual height, but it was not particularly dark in color, and a gentle wind from the east carried most of the ashes from it in the direction of Prêcheur, so that the atmosphere south of the mountain was comparatively clear. At seven o'clock that morning there were eighteen vessels at anchor in the roadstead, including the British steamer Roddam; the repair steamer Grappler, of the West India and Panama Cable Company; the steamer Roraima, of the Quebec Line, which had just arrived from Dominica; the French ship Tamaya from Nantes; and the Italian barques Theresa Lovigo, Franchesa Sa Cro Cuore, and North American. The repair steamer Pouyer Quertier, of the French Cable Company, had just gone out to grapple for a broken cable, and was about eight miles off the coast, nearly opposite the mouth of Rivière Blanche.

A little before eight o'clock there were three or four big-gun reports, like those that startled us at Vivé on the night of May 26, and at two minutes past eight, by the time of the French Cable Company, the volcano suddenly exploded, with a great roar, in two different directions. One discharge, of intensely black vapor pierced with lightning-flashes, went directly upward from the main crater, while the other shot out laterally, apparently from a new fissure in the side of the mountain, and swept the whole southwestern slope from St. Pierre to the mouth of the Rivière La Mare. Both discharges consisted mainly of superheated steam carrying immense quantities of intensely hot dust, and both probably had an initial velocity of five or six hundred feet per second.[2] If the discharge

[1] The details of this incident were given to me by Mr. Nicola Emilio Parravicino, Italian Consul at Barbadoes, who lost a daughter at St. Pierre and spent a week or more searching the ruins after the destruction of the city. The owners of the Orsolina were the Brothers Pollio, of Meta, near Naples. They owned also the Italian barque North American, which was lost in the catastrophe.

[2] Mr. Robert Mallet, the eminent English authority on earthquakes and volcanoes, gives 600 feet per second as the initial velocity of a column of dust-charged vapor projected to a height of 4,225 feet from the crater of Vesuvius in the eruption of 1872. (Introduction to "The Eruption of Vesuvius of 1872," by Professor Luigi Palmieri, p. 91. London, 1873.)

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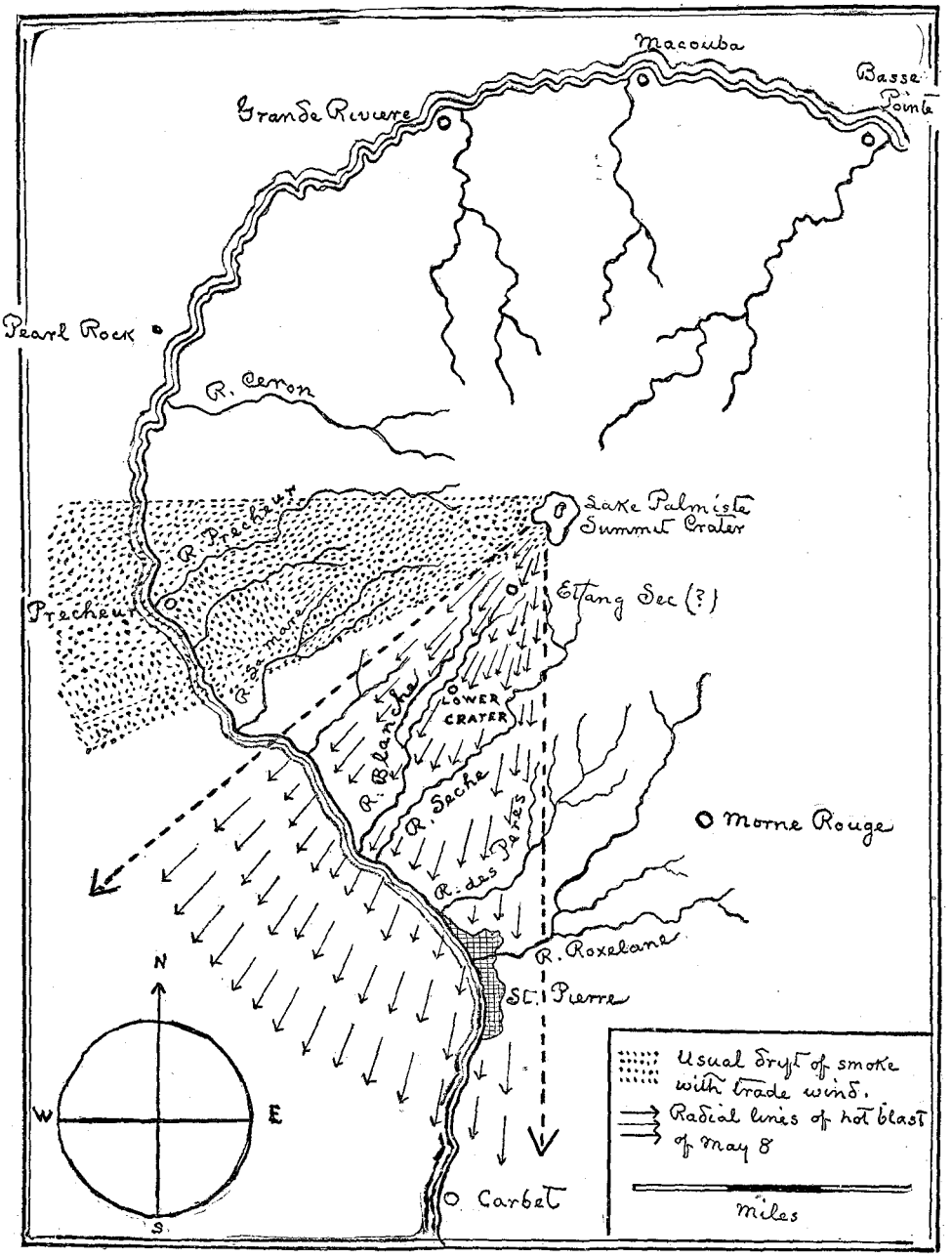

that went upward from the main crater had been directed downward, along the slope of the volcano, and the discharge that went downward from the fissure had been sent upward, through the main crater, the results would probably have been very much the same.

As seen from Morne Rouge, from the Grande Réduit, from Mont Parnasse, from the vessels in the roadstead, and from the bridge of the Pouyer Quertier, eight miles off the coast, the lateral discharge had the appearance of a black cloud, which swept down the mountain-side with tremendous rapidity, like a cloud of black-powder smoke from the muzzle of a colossal gun. There may have been lightning-flashes in this discharge, as there were in the discharge that went upward; but the most trust-

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worthy evidence that I have been able to get all tends to show that it did not contain flame at any time. Its descent was watched by Father Mary from Morne Rouge; by Messrs. Lassere and Simonut from the Grande Réduit; by Mr. Guirouard from the bishop's garden, just back of the Grande Réduit; by Mr. Fernand Clerc from Mont Parnasse, a mile east of St. Pierre; by Engineer Charles C. Evans from the deck of the Roraima; and by Mr. J. Montera from the French cable steamer, eight miles off the coast. None of these observers saw any flame in the cloud, or anything like an explosion of inflammable gas. Mr. Montera thought that when the discharge burst out of the mountain it was irradiated by a faint glow, as if the dust that it contained were incandescent. A dull reddish color, which might have been a glow, was also noticed by Mr. Guirouard from the Grande Réduit and by Francesco d'Angelo from the deck of the Roraima; but even this was not a flame-like appearance. Father Mary, at Morne Rouge, saw in the cloud what he called "fuses," or rocket-like bursts of gray smoke; but they did not produce flame, and might have been caused by uprushes of mud and steam from the slope over which the discharge was moving. The upper surface of the cloud, from his point of view—1,400 feet above the sea—was level, like the surface of a great plain, and it looked, he said, "as if all Martinique were sliding into the sea."

The frequent references to "flame," "lava," "burning gas," and "a rain of fire," in the early accounts of the disaster, were due, I think, partly to inaccurate observation, partly to the appearance of lightning-flashes in the lateral discharge,[1] and partly to excitement and a confused blending of effect with cause. It is perfectly natural to associate intense heat with visible flame; and when a cloud burns flesh, and sets fire to every inflammable object that it touches, the average observer concludes that it must contain the flame that it communicates; and if he has happened to see in it a lightning-flash or two, he declares, without hesitation, either that it came out of the volcano in the shape of a "whirlwind of fire," or that it suddenly "burst into flame" in mid-air. Some of the sailors of the Roraima insisted that they were burned by "tongues of flame" as they lay on the floor in the forecastle; but when they were closely cross-questioned, and their attention was called to the fact that their clothing was not scorched, they had to admit that they did not actually see the "tongues of flame," but thought that there must have been flames to set the ship on fire. Volcanic dust, however, is often hot enough to set fire to wood, and even to green trees. Dr. James Hector, Director of the Geological Survey of New Zealand, says that the dust ejected from the volcano of Tarawera in June, 1886, was "so hot as to set fire to trees, the stumps of which were seen burning in many places."[1]

If there was any flame, or any great explosion of inflammable gas, in the lateral cloud-discharge that swept down on St. Pierre, it could hardly have escaped the notice of the seven intelligent observers who were watching the eruption from Morne Rouge, the Grande Réduit, Mont Parnasse, the deck of the Roraima, and the bridge of the Pouyer Quertier. I shall therefore dismiss all stories of flame and explosions of inflammable gas as unworthy of serious consideration, for the reason that they do not seem to be adequately supported by credible testimony, and for the further reason that all the results of the eruption may be satisfactorily accounted for without assuming the existence of flame or gaseous explosions in the volcanic cloud. The lateral discharge was hot, just as the simultaneous discharge from the main crater was hot, and for the same reason; but there was no flame in the one or the other.

When this blast of superheated steam and hot dust struck St. Pierre, with a velocity of not less than a hundred miles an hour, it produced all the effects that a West Indian hurricane would produce if the moving air had a temperature of, say, 250° Fahrenheit, and were sweeping along with it great quantities of fine sand and small stones which were even hotter than the blast that carried them. All the trees

[1] If the cloud was lighted up at intervals by electric stars, such as those that we saw in the volcanic mantle over Vivé, miles away from the crater, on the night of May 26, such stars might easily be taken for flamelike explosions of gas; but the most trustworthy observers say that they saw *no* electric discharges of that kind.

[1] Preliminary Report to the Government, "Nature," Vol. 34, p. 389.

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in the track of the discharge were blown down or stripped of their branches; most of the houses in St. Pierre were unroofed, partly demolished, and set on fire by the hot dust; and all of the vessels in the roadstead except two were capsized and totally wrecked. The British steamer Roddam, set free by the parting of her anchor-chain, succeeded in making her escape, and reached the island of St. Lucia with twelve of her officers and men dead and ten others so severely burned that they had to be taken to a hospital. The masts, funnel, bridge, and boats of the Roraima were carried away by the tremendous force of the blast; her decks were swept by a storm of stones, pumice, and hot ashes, and she took fire fore and aft. Only two of her passengers—little Margaret Stokes and her nurse—escaped alive, and out of her crew of forty-seven men, twenty-eight died from burns and shock.

The whole population of St. Pierre perished, with the exception of a woman in a cellar who died shortly after being taken out, and a negro prisoner in the dungeon of the city jail. Thousands were killed by stones and falling walls, and thousands more by the intense heat of the blast and the still greater heat of the dust with which it was charged. From the fact that the hot hurricane did not instantly kill all of the sailors exposed to it on the Roddam and Roraima, it is fair to presume that it did not instantly kill all of the people exposed to it in St. Pierre; but as the city took fire from end to end, and soon became a roaring furnace of flame, the badly burned survivors of the blast, who had no place of refuge, must finally have been roasted to death in the streets. The heat of the flaming city was so great that the steamer Marin, from Fort de France, which reached the scene of the disaster about 11:30 A.M., could not approach the shore. It has been supposed—or perhaps I should say conjectured—that the volcanic discharge contained suffocating gases, and that many of the inhabitants of St. Pierre died from asphyxiation; but this supposition does not seem to be supported by any trustworthy evidence. Messrs. Lassere and Simonut, who were struck by the blast on the Grande Réduit; Evans and Morris, the second and fourth engineers of the Roraima; Francesco d'Angelo, Guiseppe Suzino, and Salvadore Avello, Italian sailors on the Roraima; and Auguste Ciparis, the prisoner in the dungeon of the city jail, all declare that they were not choked by gas, and that they smelled nothing unusual except a slight sulphurous odor which seemed to come from the ashes. Ciparis insists that he smelled nothing whatever; and Evans and Morris say that while the blast lasted it was too hot to breathe much, and that immediately afterward there seemed to be nothing that they *could* breathe, and they gasped, as if in a vacuum, without being able to get anything that satisfied the lungs.

All survivors of the catastrophe agree that the intensely hot blast was of very brief duration, and their statements are confirmed by the uncooked breadfruits and the scorched but living plants in pots that we found in the ruins of the city. If the blast, which was hot enough to destroy human life and set fire to buildings, had lasted ten minutes—or even five minutes—it certainly would have shriveled up young breadfruits that were fully exposed to it, and would probably have burned the fleshy stems of cactus-like plants so deeply that they could not have thrown out afterward the fresh green shoots that we saw.

The discharge of the hot hurricane-cloud of steam and ashes from the lateral fissure of the volcano was followed almost immediately by total darkness, due partly to the dust carried by the blast itself and partly to the mushrooming out overhead of the vapor-column thrown up simultaneously from the main crater. It was not ordinary darkness, like that of a cloudy, moonless night, but the complete obscurity of a windowless cellar or a deep cave. Mr. Clerc, on Mont Parnasse, could not see the children that were within reach of his arms; Engineer Evans was not able to see his companion Morris at a distance of only two feet in the engine-room of the Roraima; and Mr. Simonut, in a house on the Grande Réduit, asked his companion, Lassere, to strike a match so that he could see to cut the loose, hanging strips of burned skin from his hands. With the darkness came a light shower of small stones and pumice from the mushrooming cloud overhead, and this was immediately followed by a heavy rain which was so densely charged with ashes

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that it covered everything with a sticky plaster and felt like a downpour of liquid mud.

It would be impossible to imagine anything more frightful and appalling than the environment of the surviving sailors on the Roraima when that untimely volcanic night settled down over the roadstead of St. Pierre. The impenetrable gloom; the falling stones and pumice; the wrecked steamer—covered with ashes and blazing fore and aft; the flames of the burning city, seen dimly through a rain of liquid mud; the thundering of the invisible volcano; the cries and groans of the dying; and the mysterious suddenness and horror of the whole catastrophe, must have shaken the nerves, and almost the reason, of the strongest and bravest men.

The total darkness lasted about half an hour. Before nine o'clock it began to clear up, and the sun came out, like a red ball, in an atmosphere of smoky haze. The volcano was then hidden from sight in a mantle of dark vapor; the sky to the northward was black with falling ashes; St. Pierre was a mass of flames, from the Morne d'Orange to the Rivière des Pères, and thirty thousand people lay dead in its burning ruins. The survivors of the unprecedented disaster were twenty or thirty officers and sailors on the steamers Roddam and Roraima; half as many more floating on pieces of wreckage in the water; a few writhing in the agony of their burns at the northern end of Carbet; two French gentlemen in a wrecked carriage on the Grande Réduit; one woman in the cellar of a St. Pierre house; and one negro prisoner in the dungeon of the jail. Every other person in the track of the volcanic discharge was either dead or dying.

The survivors of the Roraima, the sailors floating in the water, and the injured at Carbet were rescued by boats from the French cable steamer and the cruiser Suchet; Messrs. Simonut and Lassere walked from the Grande Réduit to Morne Rouge, and were sent from there in a carriage to the municipal hospital at Trinité; Ciparis, the negro prisoner, who was not found until the 11th, also walked to Morne Rouge; and the woman in the cellar, who was discovered on the 10th, lived only long enough to be taken to Fort de France.

According to the best estimate that the acting Governor of Martinique could make, there were between 30,000 and 31,000 people in the area swept by the hot volcanic blast. Probably not more than thirty of them escaped death, and only four, so far as I could ascertain, were uninjured. In comparison with such a disaster as this, the destruction of Pompeii seems an event of little importance. Never before, I think, within historic times, were thirty thousand people killed, in less than three minutes, by the direct action of a volcano. What were the proximate causes of the unprecedented catastrophe? Were the destructive agencies involved therein new? Or did Mont Pelée act merely as other volcanoes had acted, and exhibit forces that had been observed in operation before and that had produced the same results in other cases?

The best modern authorities—Geikie, Dana, Palmieri, Mallet, and others—agree that explosive volcanic eruptions are due to the rising, in the chimney of the volcano, of a column of molten rock or lava, densely charged with steam, or with the dissociated gases of which water is composed. The steam in this lava-column is under enormous pressure, and is prevented from expanding only by the unyielding walls of the chimney within which it is confined. As the lava-column rises in the chimney, it comes at last to a place where the weight of the rocks in the throat of the choked-up vent above, or the resistance offered by the sides of the narrowing cone, is less than the expansive force of the imprisoned steam. The cone then gives way at its weakest point—generally at the summit-crater, where it has given way in earlier eruptions—and the superheated steam, suddenly released from pressure, explodes with tremendous violence, blowing into fine dust the molten rock which holds it, and finally escaping, with the dust, in a hot blast which goes upward through the crater, or out laterally through a fissure, like the discharge from a colossal gun.[1]

[1] "Whatever may be its source, we cannot doubt that to the enormous expansive force of superheated water (or its component gases dissociated by the high temperature) in the molten magma at the roots of volcanoes, the explosions of a crater and the subsequent rise of a lava-column are mainly due. The water or gas dissolved in the lava is retained there by the enormous overlying pressure of the lava-column; but when the molten material is brought up to the surface, the pressure is relieved and the water vaporizes and escapes. . . . Where the relief is

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This, it seems to me, is what happened in Martinique on the 8th of May. The expansive force of the steam dissolved in the lava-column was so great that it not only exploded upward through the main crater, but blew out a part of the mountain-side, and projected, through the fissure thus formed, a lateral discharge of superheated steam and molten-lava dust which swept the southwestern face of the volcano like a red-hot hurricane. The weight of the dust carried by the steam, and perhaps at first the density of the steam itself, had a tendency to depress the blast, so that it followed the slope of the mountain down, almost as if it had been a liquid. According to the estimate of Mr. Fernand Clerc, upon which I place most reliance, it went from the fissure to the sea in a period of time that was not less than two nor more than three minutes, or at an average speed-rate of from 90 to 135 miles an hour. The temperature of the molten rock when the bursting expansion of the steam that it contained blew it into fine dust was probably above 2,000° Fahrenheit; but the blast cooled rapidly in its four-mile course to the sea, and when it struck St. Pierre the steam was not hot enough to kill instantly, although it scalded flesh under clothing without injuring the garments themselves; and the dust was not hot enough to burn everything, although it set fire to objects of a particularly inflammable nature. As there were no closed windows in St. Pierre houses (and the windows would have been blown in even if they had been closed), the dust rushed into all the interiors, and found inflammable objects in almost every apartment. This was probably the reason for the sudden bursting into flame of the whole city. The houses took fire from the inside, not the outside, and the hot dust may have ignited half a dozen light, inflammable objects in every room.

That the lateral discharge contained gases, other than the vapor of water, is quite probable; but such gases must have been in very small quantities, and they played no part, I think, in the work of destruction. Steam forms at least ninety-nine per cent. of all vaporous discharges from active volcanoes, and it probably formed as great a part as that of the lateral discharge from Mont Pelée.[1] The fact that volcanoes in general throw out immense quantities of steam, mixed with a very small quantity of other gas, made it antecedently improbable that Mont Pelée would suddenly reverse the proportions by ejecting an immense volume of inflammable gas, mixed with only a small volume of steam. There is no trustworthy evidence, moreover, that it did do so.

If there had been any explosion of gas in the air on the southwestern face of the mountain, and if this had been the cause of the destruction, trees would have been blown down radially on all sides of the center of explosion—westward on the western side, and eastward on the eastern side; but such was not the case. In St. Pierre, in the valley of the Roxelane, on the edge of the Grande Réduit, and on the arête between the Rivière des Pères and the Rivière Sèche, the trees all lie with their heads directly away from a point near the summit of the volcano, between the Étang Sec and the main crater.

It has been urged, in support of the gas-explosion theory, that the destruction observed is too great to have been caused by a blast originating so far away as the Étang Sec, or even so far away as the lower crater; and that, consequently, it must have resulted from a gaseous explosion in the erupted cloud at a point in the air that was much nearer. This argument, however, seems to me to have little force. An accidental explosion of 183 tons of gunpowder, at Toulon, France, in March,

sudden and extreme, the escape of the water-vapor may be by an explosive discharge."

"The aqueous vapor, which is so largely dissolved in many lavas, must exist in the lava-column under an enormous pressure at a temperature far above its critical point—even at a white heat—and therefore possibly in a state of dissociation. The sudden ascent of lava so constituted relieves the pressure rapidly, without sensibly affecting the temperature of the mass. Consequently, the white-hot vapors at length explode and reduce the molten mass to the finest powder, like water shot out of a gun." ("Text-Book of Geology," by Sir Archibald Geikie, pp. 215, 266. N. Y., 1893.)

1 "Steam has been estimated to form nine hundred and ninety-nine one-thousandths of the whole cloud which hangs over an active volcano." (Geikie's "Text-Book of Geology," p. 193.)

"The vapors which are emitted by the liquid lava of the volcano are at least ninety-nine per cent. steam, or vapor of water." ("Characteristics of Volcanoes," by James D. Dana, pp. 7-8. N. Y., 1890.)

"St. Clair Deville and Fouqué have shown that the gaseous ejections, of which steam forms probably ninety-nine per cent., are such as arise from water admitted to a pre-existent focus of high temperature." (Robert Mallet, in introduction to "The Eruption of Vesuvius in 1872," by Professor Luigi Palmieri. London, 1873.)

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1889, caused a lateral blast which carried stones to a distance of two miles and a half, blew in doors and windows at a distance of four miles and a third, and produced a perceptible shock at a distance of fifty miles; and yet the force exerted by the most powerful explosive that man can make is insignificant in comparison with the energy exhibited by such a volcano as Mont Pelée.[1]

But in the history of volcanic eruptions there are other cases where a lateral discharge of superheated steam and hot dust has blown down trees, demolished houses, burned people to death, and devastated a mountain-side, exactly as in Martinique. The eruption of the Japanese volcano Bandai-san, in 1888, was like the recent eruption of Mont Pelée in every particular—including horizontal blast, hot dust, darkness, mud-rain, mud-flow, demolished houses, burned people, and immense trees blown down radially away from the fissure out of which the discharge came. Mr. Y. Wada, of the Imperial Meteorological Observatory at Tokyo, says that the hot, dust-charged blast from Bandai-san had a velocity of not less than ninety miles an hour; and the Japanese geologists Sikiya and Kikuchi, who have made an admirable report upon the eruption, say that the "heated blasts of steam and air, mixed with dust and rock-fragments, were fierce enough to crush trees, and to strip them not only of their branches but even of their bark—withering, scoring, and scorching everything in their track."

The destruction in this case was due, the Japanese geologists say, not to explosions of inflammable gas, but to "the sudden radial expansion of the liberated volumes of steam. The eruption of Bandai-san may be aptly compared to the firing of a tremendous gun—such an one, however, as can only be forged by Nature."

Only about 460 people were burned to death, or otherwise killed, in the eruption of the Japanese volcano, but the comparatively small loss of life was due to the fact that the part of the country where the catastrophe occurred was thinly populated. If there had been a city of 30,000 inhabitants in the area swept by the hot blast from Bandai-san, it would have been destroyed, exactly as St. Pierre was destroyed by the hot blast from Mont Pelée.[1]

As I have been forced to give to the phenomena of the Martinique eruption an explanation that differs in some respects from that given by most of the American geologists who visited the island, I am glad to find myself supported, in part, by one of the leading scientific men in the West Indies—Dr. Nicholls, C.M.G., of Dominica. In a letter written May 29 to Sir W. T. Thiselton-Dyer, Dr. Nicholls said: "It would appear that a sudden fissure was opened on the side of the mountain overlooking the city and near the Étang Sec. On this flank of the mountain a large vent belched out lava, superheated steam, and acid gases downwards on to St. Pierre and the roadstead. The flashing off into steam of the water imprisoned in the incandescent lava converted that lava into sand and dust, before it reached the city; and the radiation of heat from the molten rock, at a temperature of above 1,000° Centigrade, caused an incredibly hot blast that would create a red-hot hurricane—if I may employ such a term—that would kill people and animals instantly and that would cause all inflammable matter to burst into flame. This, from what I gather, is what really happened; and I do not think that poisonous gases or electrical phenomena are accountable for the destruction of life. You can imagine what is the enormous heat right over the vent of an active volcano. Well, St. Pierre, practically, for a short time, was in such a position, the vent being directed laterally toward the city."[2]

This explanation of the catastrophe is essentially in harmony with the view taken by Professor Israel C. Russell, of Ann Arbor,[3] and it seems to me to account satisfactorily for all the effects produced, and all the observed phenomena for which there is trustworthy testimony.

[1] "Engineering" (London), May 26, 1899. See also the description given by J. F. H. Herschel of the blast at Dover, England, January 26, 1843, where eight tons of gunpowder blew out of the side of a cliff 400,000 cubic yards of rock, weighing 2,000,000 tons, and scattered the fragments to an average depth of fourteen feet over an area of eighteen acres. (Journal of the Franklin Institute, Vol. 35, p. 270.)

[1] "The Eruption of Bandai-san," by S. Sikiya, Professor of Seismology, and Y. Kikuchi, Professor of Geology, in the Imperial University of Tokyo. Journal of the College of Science, Imperial University, Vol. III., Part 2. Tokyo, 1889.

[2] "Nature" (London), June 26, 1902.

[3] "National Geographic Magazine," July, 1902, p. 273.

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Belgian Socialism

By I. K. Friedman

Author of "Bread Alone," etc.

SOCIALISM has grown so steadily throughout Europe that one may well consider the movement as the most distinctive and characteristic thought-tendency of our time; but it has remained for the small kingdom of Belgium to take the lead in practical Socialistic achievements. The Belgian co-operative societies are to-day the wonder of the visiting radicals from the Continent and the source of continual admiration to those who have a knowledge of their achievements.

Louis Bertrand, Socialistic Deputy from Brussels, in his work on the "Co-operative Movement in Belgium," estimates that on the 1st of January, 1901, the co-operative societies numbered 1,800, and that they supplied the necessaries of life to over one million consumers, or one-seventh of the total population of the kingdom.

The Vooruit of Ghent and the Maison du Peuple of Brussels—to mention two of them—had an inauspicious beginning in a cellar, with but a bake-oven for stock in trade and a few hundred francs for a working capital, and now, in the twentieth year of their existence, each of them finds itself the possessor of real estate alone reaching $300,000 in value.

Last year the Maison du Peuple distributed 12,000,000 loaves of bread, and in the various suburbs and districts of the city it established over twenty sub-stations, which supply its members with groceries, canned goods, household furnishings, and wines. Besides this "the co-operative" sells and delivers coal; and, through its branch at Herfelingen, it manages a dairy and distributes milk and butter daily. Moreover, the central department at Brussels is the owner of a meat market and a great bazaar, handling, like our department stores, a variety of merchandise. Its medical branch employs twelve doctors, fifteen pharmacists, several dentists and oculists, and expends $10,000 yearly for the care of its sick and ailing subscribers.

The moral and intellectual achievements of the Maison du Peuple lag not a whit behind its purely economic accomplishments. Besides its main building—a beautiful edifice, erected in 1896, at the cost of $240,000—and its People's Palace, which is ever at the disposal of its members and the various workingmen's associations, one must not fail to mention its well-organized library, the high order of dramatic performances which it stages and superintends, and the funds which it contributes to the "Parti Ouvrier" for election expenses and newspapers.

The Vooruit of Ghent, however, boasts of even a finer development than its brother organization at Brussels. In 1881 this co-operative counted but four hundred members, while its balance-sheet showed receipts of but 70,000 francs; in 1899 its membership had risen to 6,600 and its receipts to 2,324,000 francs. Its profits, as in all of the co-operatives, are distributed to the subscribers in credit checks, and these checks answer the purposes of money in the purchase of merchandise in the various salesrooms of the society. The Vooruit owns its coal-yards, drug and grocery stores. It has established a life-insurance fund, and its Bond Moyson, or Mutual Sick Benefit Association, entitles one of the requisite age, who has made average yearly purchases of 150 francs, bread excluded, to an old-age pension. Lastly, the Vooruit devotes a generous per cent. of its resources to the distribution of Socialistic propaganda, and for the last fifteen years it has published a daily newspaper. Lastly, it supports libraries, gives concerts, superintends singing societies, and it owns a number of small halls where its members congregate to listen to lectures on art, literature, and the topics of the day. In a rather crude way, the Vooruit takes the place of our University Extension courses.

In the large cities the bakery is always the hub around which the immense system of the co-operatives revolves, but in the country, where the people make their bread at home, the sale of flour ranks first in importance, and on that account

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a start is always made in the rural districts with a grocery store. In the villages of the Walloon district—a semi-agricultural, semi-industrial country—the co-operatives have been gradually transformed into huge bazaars where one may purchase all things needed from birth to burial. These co-operatives show a yearly balance which varies from 150,000 to 300,000 francs, and the profits, always contributed to the welfare of members, range from 12 to 20 per cent. of the sales.

La Fraternité, founded but three years ago at Jupille, a city situated near Liège, and containing only 5,500 inhabitants, now claims the honor of serving as a model for all co-operatives of a similar type. It was started by a few devoted men, amid overwhelming difficulties, with the insignificant capital of $35; in 1899 its balance amounted to $2,270, and its books showed it had transacted a business of $17,397. On the moral side, La Fraternité has conducted an active campaign against the use of alcohol and stimulants, and its instrumentalities have been successful in reducing the consumption of beer and spirituous liquors. The society's dramatic circle conducts concerts and festivals; and its study circle, founded in November, 1899, has made noble efforts to elevate the intellectual attainments of its members. The circle makes a serious study of Socialism and economics, the sciences, hygiene, and education; and to aid its members in the pursuit of knowledge in these branches it has founded a well-stocked library.

The Progress of Joliment is the most successful financially, if not the finest, of the rural co-operatives. This town claims the distinction of having erected the first Maison du Peuple, and under the same name it has built spacious halls at Morlanwelz, Houdeng, Ecaussines, and La Louvière, where the workingmen meet in times of trouble or on days of merry-making. The membership of the Progress is 14,807, and its assets reach the sum of 848,825 francs.

The co-operative of the purely agricultural type, consisting for the greater part of dairies and societies of purchase and sale, differs from all of these in its organization. It starts as a usual thing with a capital of 2,500 francs, divided into shares of 25 francs, each drawing an annual interest of one franc. Every member's shares are equal to the number of his cows, and he is bound by agreement to furnish the society all of its milk in a pure state, as determined by the regulations of a committee. To liquidate the capital a deduction of one centime is made on every kilogramme of milk (about one-fifth of a cent per quart), and in this manner each member, after supplying 2,500 kilogrammes of milk, fully pays up his one share of 25 francs. The milk is taken to the dairy once a day, tested by a separator, and its weight is entered on the books of the society and on the pass-books of the members; and the butter, like the milk, is sold under the direction of the co-operative. It is claimed, and with authority, that the Belgian farmer, by the aid of these agricultural institutions, secures twice as much for his milk and butter as he did under the individualistic method of sale.

These agricultural co-operatives have one central corporation which exists for the sole purpose of opening new dairies, the products of which are sold in the cities and even in foreign countries, and to prevent an injurious competition between the various societies. Seed, improved machinery, food for cattle, groceries, household supplies of all kinds, are purchased co-operatively.

One might complete this creditable list by a full description of the co-operative breweries and distilleries, of the people's banks, of the various associations for the insurance of property against loss by fire and of cattle against death and disease, of the farmers' trades-unions, the agricultural leagues, the apiculture, horticulture, and poultry associations, but doubtlessly enough has been said, sufficient facts and figures have been brought forward, to show on what solid ground the Belgian co-operatives rest, what substantial benefits they confer, and how intimately they enter into the life of the people.

It has already been mentioned that the largest of these societies were evolved from a beginning almost ludicrously small, that their triumph was not achieved without repeated failures, discouragement, and disaster, and a succinct history of the movement may not be without its interest.

When the wheat and potato crops failed

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in the years 1845–47 and a deplorable famine resulted, the Government, under the leadership of its Minister of the Interior, encouraged the formation of saving societies for the purchase of winter provisions, and some of the municipal institutions established bureaus where the necessaries of life were sold below cost. In 1848 the productive co-operative societies of France, desirous of supplanting capitalism, sprang up on every hand, and in the same year the tailors, printers, shoemakers, and carpenters of Brussels, Ghent, and Liège imitated the example set in France and established similar institutions. Complete failure defeated their efforts, and not one of these co-operatives of production remains to-day as a living witness of the universal disaster.

No further attempt was made in the direction of co-operation until 1865, when the French societies launched forth again, and—a matter of still greater encouragement—the Belgian press scattered the story of the Rochdale Pioneers broadcast. Then the Freemasons of the "Loge des Amis Philanthropes" paved the way by founding a popular co-operative restaurant, rather philanthropic than business-like in its character; but it still remained for the International Workingmen's Association and its active propaganda to induce the people to follow the road which had been opened. The principles of co-operation were diffused among the masses, and gradually co-operatives of consumption arose on all sides, becoming numerous and flourishing enough to suggest the formation of a central institution for the wholesale purchase of the merchandise to be used in common.

But when the International dissolved, the co-operative movement sank into decadence, and it was not until 1880 that the spirit to which the present success is due was revivified, more energetic, more persistent than ever. The example set by the famous Vooruit of Ghent, the establishment of co-operative societies of consumption among the employees of the State, and the organization of the co-operative pharmacies of the Free Federation of Mutual Benefit Societies of Brussels, were the three streams that converged to make a river mighty enough to carry the floundering vessel successfully.

The bitter hostility of the Roman Catholic Church was by no means one of the slightest difficulties encountered by the co-operatives; until very recently, for instance, the Vooruit of Ghent found it all but impossible to establish a single group of Socialistic workingmen in the towns of Flanders, subjected as they have been for so many centuries to the domination of the clerics. In these districts the tavern-keepers who rented their premises to the speakers of the co-operatives were boycotted and ruined, and the aroused peasants assaulted and stoned the orators; but gradually, step by step and one by one, the societies have won over to their theories Wetteren, Tremonde, Zeele, Thiet, Courtrai, Ypres, Roulers—the bone and sinew of the antagonistic sections. And, peculiar to relate, it is now the Catholic party—the former defender of the middleman and the small shopkeeper—which places itself at the head and front of the co-operative movement in the agricultural districts.

To what is this change of front due? First, to the adoption of the new article in the Constitution, April 8, 1893, which made voters of all Belgian male citizens. It is owing to this innovation that the country people, hitherto kept in subjection by the Church, are now more or less obliged to take part in the electoral contests, and they are thus perforce awakened to the issue of the newer ideas. Secondly, the first elections under the new methods of voting were a revelation to the conservative parties, who were astonished to learn that the Socialists had obtained 350,000 votes and sent 29 out of 152 Deputies to Parliament. To quote the words of Louis Bertrand: "The Clericals considered that our success among the masses was due above all else to our co-operative organization, or that it was at least by its aid that we found the resources and the men necessary for the promulgation of our ideas. Thereupon they began to organize co-operative societies in the country, to marshal the peasants and to prevent them from coming to swell the ranks of the Socialist army."

The Belgian Socialist, however, is not content to rest on his oars, satisfied with the wonders he has worked; he regards the co-operative as a mere means to an

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end, as a stepping-stone by which society may mount from the capitalistic régime of to-day to the socialistic régime of to-morrow. He holds that one class cannot supplant another, that the proletariat cannot take the place of the bourgeoisie in government and industry unless it be endowed with the ability of so doing, and he regards the co-operative as the most excellent means ever devised for the economic, commercial, and industrial education of the masses.

Labor Activity in Massachusetts

By R. L. Bridgman

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT, in his message to Congress at the opening of the session, referring to the need of corporation legislation, mentioned Massachusetts as a "conservative" State, yet as one which was most radical upon the point of public restrictions upon public service organizations. The same judgment holds regarding labor legislation. Conservative as the State is, controlled by manufacturers as is inevitable, yet her labor laws are in advance of other States. The last session of the Legislature was marked by the appointment of a labor committee more favorable to labor interests than any for many years, and the strength of the labor cause among men who were not professedly labor men was notable. Hence a study of this most advanced session of this most advanced State may be of service to other States.

Labor progress is along two lines, industrial and political. Industrially, the labor men are struggling for shorter hours, for higher pay, for greater reduction of labor by women and children, and for less risk to employees, with better sanitary provisions. Politically, it is a fact that the representatives who demand more power for the people, who would extend the principles of democracy, are the same men as those who are most strenuous for labor reforms.

Some fifty different measures were introduced which would come under one of these heads or the other, giving more industrial or political power to the working masses of the people. One measure which passed both branches and became law provides for the appointment of a committee to work in conjunction with similar committees in other legislatures (supposing that the labor men can secure their appointment) for the enactment of a National eight-hour law. A bill for an eight-hour day for public employees in the State was defeated by the Senate after it had passed the House. The labor committee reported unanimously a bill for the establishment of emergency funds by municipalities for the employment of persons out of work, but this failed. However, a similar bill passed the House and was defeated in the Senate only after one of the most protracted debates of the session, providing for the establishment of an emergency fund of $100,000 to be used by the State Highway Commission in giving work during industrial depressions to men out of employment. The argument was that the men would be kept of the poorhouses, while the State would secure the construction of public improvements at a low cost. The Socialist element in the House was especially strong for this bill, but it had large support also from Democrats and Republicans. The working of women and minors in factories has been made lighter in respect to night work and extra work to make up for time lost. But the petition for clear-glass factory windows was denied. The effort to have all children under sixteen years prevented from work in factories failed—partly because fourteen years, the present limit, is the average age when children graduate from grammar schools, and a large proporion of them do not go on to a high-school education. Either employers or employees have been authorized to report to the State Board of Arbitration and Conciliation in case of strike or lockout, and the Board "shall," instead of "may, if it deems advisable," investigate and report upon the cause of the difficulty. A proposed retirement fund for State employees was defeated, with but little support. Several bills were passed by the House only to be defeated by the Senate, modifying the employers'

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liability law so that the conditions in court to prove a right to compensation from the employer shall not be as onerous upon the employees. The petition that when an employer whose employees are on strike advertises for others to take the place of the strikers he shall state in his advertisement that a strike is in progress was referred to the next Legislature. Employees have been given more time for voting on election days, for factories are not to be open till eight o'clock, thus giving workmen two hours after the opening of the polls, and this is regarded as much better than being limited to the hour at the opening and to the noon hour. Employees who are discharged, or who leave their employment, must be paid at once. Petitions for the establishment of free public employment offices were all acted upon adversely. A carefully prepared scheme for an industrial court to avert strikes and lockouts failed completely of acceptance. A bill to limit the hours of labor of nurses in hospitals to ten out of twenty-four passed the House, but was finished in the Senate—"the graveyard of all labor reforms," as some say, sorrowfully and sarcastically. The "picketing bill," which would permit strikers to try to persuade other workmen from taking their places, and thus prevent the present practice of injunctions against picketing, as it is called, was passed by the House, after a sharp struggle, and was defeated in the Senate, after a hot debate, by the vote of 11 to 16.

Politically, the session has seen a wonderful increase in the strength of the ideas of the popular initiative and referendum. The largest favorable vote came on the constitutional amendment for popular initiative in proposing constitutional amendments, instead of having the Legislature propose them to the people. This had a vote of 111 in favor to 69 against. This was not the requisite vote of two-thirds in favor, and so the amendment failed. But it is remarkable when such a proposition gets a large majority in the Massachusetts Legislature. On the similar idea that there be a referendum of legislative acts to the people on petition of 25,000 voters, there was one favorable vote in the House of 54 to 52, and another of 53 to 45. Then the bill (requiring only a majority vote) went to the Senate. There it was amended so that ten per cent. of the voters of every city and town must sign the petition, and this so disgusted the friends of the bill as a grossly unfair proposition that they refused to vote for it, and the bill failed. But the House votes will indicate what may occur in the near future. Other forms of referendum and initiative were presented, but these were the most strongly supported. The tendency of recent years in Massachusetts has been distinctly toward larger privileges and rights for the working people as regards the vital subjects of wages and hours, and with it is a tendency toward greater democracy as regards the power of the people in legislation.

An English Onlooker's Note-Book[1]

THERE must be some truth in the widespread impression that, in the mind of the old man, "old times are the best times," yet the brilliant departures from that doleful standpoint are so many and so noticeable that we hesitate to subscribe to this particular faith of our fathers.

The reader of "An Onlooker's Note-Book" is blown to and fro by the wit of the author, and hardly knows where he stands in the end, for all shades of gray come between the optimism and pessimism of this note-taker. To be exact, one can hardly say that the dazzling snow of pure optimism ever appears—the fairest tint might be classed as pale mauve. G. W. E. Russell, Esq., whose name does not appear upon the title-page, proposes to deal with certain phenomena in contemporary life and thought, one by one—phenomena upon which, he tells us, Mr. Gladstone, from his height of years, looked with increasingly grave misgiving. The old statesman, reviewing the half-century preceding 1887—the first jubilee year of Queen Victoria—was possessed with the

[1] *An Onlooker's Note-Book.* By the Author of "Collections and Recollections." Harper & Brothers, New York.

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idea that the danger threatening his people lay largely in what the Onlooker calls cocksureness. This is proven to have disappeared now, however it may have flourished in the middle of the nineteenth century. "To-day no one (worth mentioning) is cocksure; that is a gain. Scarcely any one is convinced; that is a loss." In science, political economy, literature, religion, and morals the Onlooker searches in vain for conviction. He declares "the very conception of an absolute right and wrong has perished from common thinking. Our crimes are chargeable on our ancestry, and our vices are pitied as diseases." He wishes for an increase of cocksureness, at least in the sphere of moral conduct. This for the pessimistic side of the Note-Book.

In an entertaining comment upon "Manners Ancient and Modern" an anecdote is given of a "famous praiser of old times, the Dowager Duchess of Cleveland (1792–1883), who once told me that she believed the present Lord Salisbury had no carriage. On my expressing innocent surprise, she replied, 'I have been told that Lord Salisbury goes about London in a *brougham*,' and her tone could not have expressed a more lively horror if the vehicle had been a coster's barrow. The Dowager Duchess of Beaufort, who died in 1889, used to thank Heaven that she had never driven in a hack-coach nor sat in the pit at the play, by which derogatory synonyms she indicated cabs and stalls." Where stateliness has vanished comfort has greatly increased, but the cloud reappears at the end of the chapter. "To-day we have the evil and the grossness conjoined—the morals of the Tuileries with the manners of Greenwich Fair." We fear the Dowager Duchess had too apt a pupil.

In discussing true and false chivalry the Onlooker offers a charming example of the former in the universal homage paid to the innocent young Queen upon her accession to the English throne. Her very helplessness was her panoply. "When Lord Palmerston was (most deservedly) dismissed from the Foreign Office in 1851, and submitted to the rebuff with a meekness which surprised his friends, he said, 'I had to remember that I was not dealing only with my Sovereign, but with a lady whom I had offended.'"

As a specimen of false chivalry, the author speaks bitterly of its fight for gold and not for honor. "The reckless determination to be rich, the cynical disregard of all moral restraints, the bloodthirsty resolve to further financial enterprise with bullets and bayonets, the shameless glorification of brute force—these are some of the elements which compose the new chivalry."

The comment upon luxury is in a more hopeful strain. Luxury, if not emulation, is not culpable. "Luxury, cultivated on its own merits, is merely a superior form of comfort, and may be justified on the grounds which justify a spring-mattress or a lemon squash." "Public splendor brightens life; and whatever brightens life tends to happiness and virtue."

After giving what appears to us a Utopian view of the hoped-for results of democracy, the Onlooker proceeds to demolish the fair ideals by reciting plain facts and failures. Did any one seriously believe that democracy would bring back the golden age and precipitate the millennium? That must have been a mirage only visible to the dreaming eye of youth personified. Mr. Russell clings to the hope, however, that democracy will come to its own in England through the school of local self-government. His personal experience may be the ground upon which he bases his hope. The example of London shows that men may be keen about local affairs while they are profoundly indifferent to imperial politics. The great disappointment and surprise to the leaders of democratic principles has been the clamor of the people for war. In our country it was the passion of the people that brought on the recent war. In England, as the Onlooker bitterly says, the Minister who beats the loudest war-drum can reckon on the most tumultuous support and the biggest majority. Venality is the characteristic of English democracy, so we are told by this Liberal writing to Liberals. "A workingman was contesting a small borough against the dominant influence of the local family. 'Fellow-workmen,' he cried, 'if you return me, I can only serve you politically. I can't give you any blankets; I can't give you any game;' whereupon the voice from

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the crowd exclaimed, 'Then you won't do here, old chap! You'd better try somewhere else.'"

A series of chapters upon Monarchy divides the workings of government into four sections—from 1760 to 1901—and overflows with suggestions and clever sayings. Thackeray's caricature of George IV. is deprecated—"He was magnificent, sumptuous, stately, and those qualities, as we have lately seen, attract the multitude." In a brief paragraph William IV. is vividly portrayed, and we come to the young Queen, who revolutionized the Court.

Lord Melbourne gained the Queen's confidence, according to Bishop Wilberforce, because he exhibited "the fullest attentive deference of the subject with a subdued air of 'your father's friend,' which was quite fascinating."

Sir Robert Peel was less a favorite. "I have no small talk," said the Duke of Wellington, "and Peel has no manners." Of Lord John Russell this "royal but unjust comment upon his conversation was made: 'He would be better company if he had any other subject besides the Revolution of 1688 and himself.'" Mr. Russell tells this story: "A friend of mine once asked Queen Victoria if, when a Prime Minister resigned, he named his successor. 'Not unless I ask him to,' was her Majesty's significant reply." In this chapter we find the following good story anent her late Majesty's dislike of Mr. Gladstone: "Mr. and Mrs. Gladstone had been in the habit of paying frequent visits at the deanery at Windsor, and the habit was continued during the long struggle over the Eastern question. An illustrious personage wrote to the Dean suggesting that, as Mr. Gladstone was engaged in violent attacks upon the Government, it might be better if his visits to the deanery were discontinued. 'Whereupon,' said the stout old Dean—Wellington's nephew and counterpart—'I wrote her a tickler.' Imagination boggles at the thought."

Mr. Russell thinks that monarchy in 1901 will be popular, splendid, and active. In the days when the course of the Prince of Wales caused criticism, the author says Dr. Liddon told him that he once received a letter charging him with unfaithfulness to his duty because he did not rebuke the Prince from the pulpit of St. Paul's. "Liddon replied that he had no reason to suppose that the Prince was one of his congregation, and that a sermon, to be useful, should be addressed to the duties and difficulties of those who heard it."

Leaving the monarch, the Onlooker turns his attention to the Court, the peerage and its intricacies, and discusses the faults that adhere to the hereditary principle of government. He allows that the House of Lords is, next to the Crown, the most popular institution in the country, but quotes as a closing sentiment, "What shall posterity most wonder at—the audacity of the imposture or the blindness of the dupe? The immensity of the worship or the pettiness of the idol?"

He riddles the claims of English aristocracy by proving that all the qualities formerly supposed to mark that class are to be found in men entirely outside of their ranks. The idea is by no means novel to Americans. Physical courage, uncomplaining endurance of pain, or cheery stoicism, according to Carlyle—courtesy, chivalry, and contempt for filthy lucre—are no longer the exclusive characteristics of the aristocracy. Were they ever so? It may be that chivalry is dead in England. It would not be fitting for a foreigner to express an opinion; but Mr. Russell confuses things when he brackets America, a strong nation, against Spain, a weak one, with England's attitude in the Armenian difficulties. Is it not supposable that there may have been a spark of national chivalry in England that made her back America in her defense of Cuba? Must we believe it was all self-interest? He says: "America was strong and Spain was weak, so we backed America for all we were worth. We believed that France was weak, and we tried to pick a quarrel with her over Fashoda. The Armenians were a feeble folk, and we would not move a finger to save them from massacre. Greece is a little country, and we had nothing but clumsy ridicule for her struggle against the Turkish tyranny. We were told that the South African republics had lost the power of fighting—and we are learning our lesson now. In all these controversies, aristocracy, if it had been really what its eulogists believed it, ought to

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have shown England the more excellent way."

Superstition has taken captive the idle and luxurious society of England, so we are assured—superstition either ludicrous or harmful. Religious observance is extinct. Mr. Russell declares that, in the exclusive realm of society at least, whatever of Sunday is not occupied with exercise is given to meals. He gives an amazing account of the gastronomic necessities of a ducal pair on a "week-end" visit, and contrasts it with the Sunday menu, written by a cook whose education was finished before the school board was established, which is still affectionately remembered in a family with which he is connected:

"Soup
Cold Beef
Salad
Cold Sweets."

He says the service at the Chapel Royal is always well attended, and cynically remarks that the accommodations are limited, the service is very late, very short, and very musical, and one can see royalty at close quarters. He quotes an amusing tale from Lady Grenville's Letters. A young Duc de Rohan, when complimented on his beautiful expression, admitted the soft impeachment, saying, "'Oui, mais il faudrait me voir quand je prie,' and there is a peculiar satisfaction in contemplating the illustrious as well as the beautiful of the earth when engaged in the offices of devotion." Bishop Wilberforce used to tell a story of a greedy clergyman who, when asked to say grace, looked anxiously to see if there were champagne-glasses on the table. If there were, he began, "Bountiful Jehovah!" If he saw only claret-glasses, he said, "We are not worthy of the least of Thy mercies."

Under the heading, Charity, Credit, and Cards, the popularity of "bridge" is mentioned with the fact that one of the most conspicuous of English great ladies is to her friends known as "Ponte Vecchia."

Of social journalism the Onlooker cannot speak too severely, though acknowledging, with some hesitation, that there are grades in it—from better to baser. Freddy Du Cane, the well-born society writer, serves as a peg upon which to hang many biting comments. Tom Garbage, of humble parentage but high ambitions, is the typical journalist of the baser sort, and a pitiful figure he cuts. The Writing Woman and the Racing Woman are called to account, suffering with the others who have gone before.

We gladly turn from these gloomy reflections to the brighter aspects of life as Mr. Russell sees them in the most promising places—among the young, in the schools and universities. He recognizes a spirit of self-sacrifice in the young manhood of Great Britain, and believes that it carries in itself the promise of a nobler citizenship and a more genuine patriotism than those we see to-day. In "Women and Good Works" a really bright light is turned upon English life. The final chapter is devoted to "The Church" (of England, naturally), and hope is fairly upon the wing. A cheerful and reasonable optimism prevails. The best element of hope in the national outlook, says Mr. Russell, is that so many of the good are young. "Of senile and anile vice, and middle-aged sordidness, and precocious cynicism, we have seen more than enough in our survey of society. The correction is to be found in the sight of young officers working for their men, and public-school boys banding themselves together to resist wrongdoing; and the universities sending the pick of their athletes to curacies in the slums, and young barristers and young M. P.'s sacrificing their leisure for social work; and young ladies forsaking their own amusements to give mill-hands and factory girls a better time. These sights and others like them, in spite of all the hideous phenomena around us, encourage us to a cheerful, reasonable optimism."

So we leave the Onlooker where we all should stand, not mourning for the "good old times," but helping on and believing in the present and full of hope for the future. The Onlooker and the Preacher are of kindred minds; see Ecclesiastes xii., 13.

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Books of the Week

This report of current literature is supplemented by fuller reviews of such books as in the judgment of the editors are of special importance to our readers. Any of these books will be sent by the publishers of The Outlook, postpaid, to any address on receipt of the published price, with postage added when the price is marked "net."

Anthology of Russian Literature: From the Earliest Period to the Present Time. By Leo Wiener. In Two Parts. Part I. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 6×9 in. 447 pages. $3.

Reserved for later notice.

Assyrian and Babylonian Contracts with Aramaic Reference Notes. By James Henry Stevenson, Ph.D. (The Vanderbilt Oriental Series.) The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 206 pages.

A work highly creditable to Vanderbilt University, and significant chiefly to experts in Assyriology. Its relation to a portion of Professor Sayce's popular work, "Assyrians and Babylonians," is that of a source-book.

Bale Marked Circle X (The): A Blockade-Running Adventure. By George Cary Eggleston. Illustrated. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5×7½ in. 376 pages. $1.20.

A romance of the days of the great Civil War, the burden of which falls on the exploits of a group of Confederate youths who undertake to run the blockade and bear to its destination a "bale" which is in substance a despatch-box and torpedo. Their adventures are many and thrilling, and are told in a manner sufficiently genial and entertaining to leave no sting in the hearts of survivors on either side of the great conflict.

Company Commanders' Manual of Army Regulations. Compiled by William H. Waldron, First Lieutenant 29th United States Infantry. The Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co., Kansas City, Mo. 4½×6 in. 270 pages.

Well described in the sub-title. The inclusion of facsimile reproductions in reduced size of all required forms and blanks is a useful feature.

Grammar of Attic and Ionic Greek (A). By Frank Cole Babbitt, Ph.D. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 448 pages. $1.50.

Handbook of Best Readings. Selected and Edited by S. H. Clark. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×8 in. 558 pages. $1.50, net.

High School Algebra. By M. A. Bailey, A.M. The American Book Co., New York. 5×7 in. 297 pages. 90c.

Jezebel: A Romance in the Days when Ahab was King of Israel. By Lafayette McLaws. Illustrated. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5¼×7¾ in. 490 pages.

A romance of the life and character of the Tyrian princess, wife of Ahab, King of Israel. The story is far better written than are historical romances in general. The author shows her ability to penetrate the spirit of a remote past and give life and color to the conduct of its people. The Jezebel here is quite different and more consistent with common human nature than is the popular conception of the Jezebel of Bible story. Miss McLaws displays insight into character, and seeks to give substantial motive for the doings of this famous queen who became an abomination in the eyes of many Israelites. The close of the story is most unlike the end of the Scriptural Jezebel, and comes with somewhat of surprise.

Judith's Garden. By Mary E. Stone Bassett. Illustrated. The Lothrop Publishing Co., Boston. 5½×8¼ in. 337 pages. $1.50.

Kingdom of the Invisible (The). By Mary Platt Parmele. J. F. Taylor & Co., New York. 5×8½ in. 44 pages.

Lenox and the Berkshire Highlands. By R. De Witt Mallary. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. 5½×8½ in. 363 pages. $1.75.

This volume ought to have wide reading. The Berkshire highlands appeal to thousands who resort thither for a summer residence, but especially for an autumn holiday—for it is in October when the Berkshires glow with their greatest glory. Mr. Mallary tells us about old-time Lenox, about literary Lenox (more particularly about Hawthorne and Catherine Maria Sedgwick), about modern Lenox and its vicinage. The vicinage of course includes Pittsfield, Stockbridge, Great Barrington, and Sheffield. Mr. Mallary might have extended his Berkshire limits without injury to the book and with satisfaction to many readers. Not the least interesting of his chapters is that entitled "The Church of Berkshire until the Disestablishment of 1834." The book is a real contribution both to topographical and to historical knowledge. It should stand alongside the four volumes of that pleasantly informative series, "American Historic Towns."

Memoirs of François René Vicomte de Chateaubriand. Being a Translation by Alexander Teixeira de Mattos. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. Vols. III. and IV. 6×9 in.

With the publication of the third and fourth volumes of the English translation of Chateaubriand's "Mémoires d'Outre Tombe" we realize better how much the world owes to this story-teller. He understood his art fairly well, but comparatively few people nowadays read his books. "Atala" and "René" are still mentioned whenever any one makes a comprehensive review of French literature; but few persons sit down with a volume of Chateaubriand and read it through from cover to cover. It seems a pity for the author's story-telling reputation that these memoirs were not earlier made accessible to his admirers in England and America—and he has had thousands in both countries, especially in the former, where he lived for a time as Ambassador. That melancholy youth, "René," in whom Chateaubriand intended we should see himself, is not a tenth part as interesting as is the real Chateaubriand. In the just published volumes we learn about the young author's canvass for the Institute, his subsequent elec-

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tion, the appearance of his "Génie du Christianisme," and Chateaubriand's not unnatural belief that the book's appearance started a religious revolution against the philosophism of the eighteenth century. We read also about the last days of the Empire, and here it is that the student of history may gain new lights on that remarkable period. One of the best estimates of Napoleon's greatness and littleness is to be found in these pages. The volumes comprise a much wider picture, however, than that of the Empire's rise and fall. Great characters step across the stage—Napoleon, Ney, Talleyrand, Bernadotte, Fouché, Louis XVIII., Charles X., the Ducs du Berry, d'Orleans, and Decazes, Lafayette, Soult, Mesdames de Stael and Récamier, the Queens of Prussia and Hanover, Canning, Wellington, Lords Londonderry and Liverpool. When a new character is mentioned in the book, a foot-note explains in half a dozen lines the career of that character—an admirable and helpful plan which might well be followed in other books of reminiscence. All the characters and all the movements, religious, political, social, literary, are described with color and with a true Gallic touch-and-go.

Nobility of the Negro (The). By William Kimberly Palmer, New Rochelle, New York. 4×7 in. 15 pages.

A pamphlet, rather platitudinous.

Novels, Stories, and Sketches of F. Hopkinson Smith. Illustrated. Vol. II. A White Umbrella in Mexico and Other Lands. Vol. III. Colonel Carter and Others. (Beacon Edition.) Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 5×7¾ in. Sold by subscription only.

Ode on the Coronation of King Edward. By Bliss Carman. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. 6½×9¼ in. 34 pages.

Reserved for later notice.

Old English Ballads. Edited by James P. Kinard, Ph.D. (The Silver Series of Classics.) Silver, Burdett & Co., New York. 4¾×7½ in. 126 pages.

Reserved for later notice.

Onward and Upward. By Hugh H. Quilter, B.A. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 200 pages. $1, net.

At last we have a book written by one who shows evidences of some real reverence for children, as well as great experience in dealing with them. Mr. Quilter is a Junior Inspector of the London Schools. By instinct as well as by education he seems to know that he must never write *down* to a child's level; he is quick to feel from afar the child's instant resentment in such a case. His little volume has equal value whether regarded as a child's first book in zoölogy or as an unpriggish primer of practical ethics for boys and girls.

Poems of Schiller (The). Translated by E. P. Arnold-Forster. Henry Holt & Co., New York. 5×8 in. 361 pages. $1.60, net.

Primera Memoria Anual sobre las Escuelas Publicas de Cuba, 1900-01. (First Annual Report of the Commissioner of Public Schools of Cuba, 1900-01.) Rambla & Bouza, 35 Obispo Street, Havana. 6¾×9 in. 660 pages.

In these days of American discredit concerning commercial Cuba, Americans may yet take some heart concerning educational affairs in the island. Their principal source of information is this excellently compiled official record published in Havana. It is printed in English with Spanish translation, and vice versa. It comprises a history of education in Cuba during the last two centuries, together with a summary of progress made during the year in question. Following are the reports of the superintendents of education from each province. These are printed only in Spanish, and cover more than two hundred pages. The book is deeply interesting throughout, both as a study in education methods and as a study in nation-making. Of the entire population of school age in Cuba, forty-seven per cent. were enrolled, and twenty four per cent. were in regular attendance. There are good reasons for this small percentage of attendance: (1) In the greater part of the United States the density of population far exceeds that of Cuba. Ohio, for instance, has practically the same area, but has a population of over four million to Cuba's one and a half million. In Cuba there are thirty-five inhabitants per square mile, but this statement does not give a true idea of the distribution of population. Nearly half of the population of the island is collected in cities and towns; the remainder is scattered over so wide an area that the density in the rural districts is but eighteen persons per square mile. (2) The roads and means of communication are still poor. (3) The prevalent fear of the tropical sun and rain is so strong that risks are not taken. (4) Finally, present poverty is often avoided only by the sweat of young brows, which should be bent over readers and arithmetics. The report proceeds to discuss the number and qualification of teachers and of boards of education, the methods and subjects of studies, the establishment and maintenance of kindergartens, manual, normal, and summer schools; the provision for scholarships (with special reference to the generous offer of the Connecticut Legislature), and, most interesting of all, the institution in Cuba of "The School City." In providing a proper government for Cuba we have been led by our experience, as well as by the glaring need of the island, towards establishing an institution there which should produce young citizens of the best type.

Red Book of Niagara (The). By Irving P. Bishop, S.M., F.G.S.A. With Illustrations and Maps. The Wenboene-Sumner Co., Buffalo, N. Y. 4½×7¼ in. 120 pages. 25c.

Religion in Recent Art. Expository Lectures on Rossetti, Burne-Jones, Watts, Holman Hunt, and Wagner. By P. T. Forsyth, D.D. Illustrated. Edwin S. Gorham, Fourth Avenue and Twenty-second Street, New York. 6×9 in. 316 pages. $3.

Reserved for later notice.

Reply to Professor Bourne's "The Whitman Legend." By Myron Eells, D.D. The Statesman Printing Co., Walla Walla, Washington. 5½×8¼ in. 122 pages.

Sea Breezes and Sand Dunes. By Rebecca Van Dusen. The Abbey Press, New York. 5×8 in. 192 pages.

There is here no distinction of plot, purpose, or literary merit above that of the painstaking amateur; the book is just an innocuous,

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pleasant little tale of commonplace daily happenings.

Second Reader (The). By Frances Lilian Taylor. The Werner School Book Co., New York. 5½×7½ in. 160 pages.

Shattered Idols: John Marshall's Doctrine of Implied Powers. By a Lawyer. The Schulte Publishing Co., Chicago. 4¼×6½ in. 82 pages.

Short History of the Christian Church (A). By John W. Moncrief, A.M. The Fleming H. Revell Co., New York. 5½×8 in. 456 pages. $1.50, net.

This is designed as an introduction to its great subject, and an excellent one it is. The history of the Church is the history of the slow development of the larger humanity of the still future centuries toward that social order in which the world will one day recognize itself as indeed the kingdom of God that Jesus heralded. This is Professor Moncrief's conviction. Some consciousness of it underlies the widening interest in his subject. To promote this interest the volume is well fitted. Carefully selected bibliographies open the doors out of its successive sections into fuller knowledge of every part of the field, while the main line of narrative is short, simple, and untechnical. A valuable feature is the open view afforded of the parallel movement of the political history, apart from which the ecclesiastical fails to be well understood. The work is thoroughly Protestant in spirit, but free from polemics and sectarianism. In bringing the history up to date the resurgence of the Papacy in the nineteenth century is amply exhibited, but some other prominent features of the period fail to receive proportional treatment; as the decline of sectarianism, the disintegration of creeds by the new cosmology, and the rise of Christian Socialism. German and British leaders of religious thought are duly noted, but Bushnell, the greatest American theologian of the century after the elder Dwight, is unmentioned. Universalists no longer hold, as stated, the creed they adopted in 1803; this was superseded by a new declaration about two years since. The appearance of such a work as Professor Moncrief's incites a larger attention to church history by church members. The neglect of it as a proper subject for advanced classes in Sunday-schools is weak and inexcusable. In proper appreciation of their own history Jews set an example that Christians would do well to imitate.

Society in the Elizabethan Age (The). By Hubert Hall, F.S.A. Illustrated. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 6×9 in. 305 pages. $2.50.

This is the third edition of an interesting work. It contains some new matter relative to the celebrated "Littlecote" murder.

Songs of the Press and Other Adventures in Verse. By Bailey Millard. Elder & Shepard, San Francisco. 5¼×8 in. 111 pages.

Spanish and English Conversation. First and Second Books. By Ada Edmonds Pinney. Ginn & Co., Boston. 4¾×7½ in. 60c. each.

State Banking in the United States since the Passage of the National Bank Act. By George E. Barnett, Ph.D. (The Johns Hopkins University Studies in Historical and Political Science.) The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore. 5½×9½ in. 117 pages.

Story of Life (The). By Lyman C. Wooster, Ph.D. The Rowland Printing Office, Emporia, Kan. 6×9 in. 57 pages.

A pamphlet on the development of life by "a Christian biologist"—a mingling of science, wit, speculation, and "scientific temperance."

Story of the Amphibians and the Reptiles (The). By James Newton Baskett and Raymond L. Ditmars. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co., New York. 4½×7¼ in. 217 pages. 60c.

Studies in the Lives of the Saints. By Edward Hutton. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. 5×7½ in. 157 pages. $1.25, net.

It is hard to speak in measured terms of either the luminous beauty of the author's literary style or the perfect taste of the publishers' work. Within covers of satisfying simplicity, printed on heavy paper in black-faced type, this small volume is a delight in form and substance. In fourteen short essays, remarkable for their terse, clear characterizations, Mr. Hutton has written of those mystics who not only believed but "convinced the whole world . . . that the issue of some tremendous engagement between God and his enemies depends upon the allegiance of mankind"—from St. Augustine, "that spirit in which all hell and hades and heaven dwelt, but not one bit of earth nor a single sunbeam of the world," to Isabel de Flores, "the Rose of Mary," who marred her own beauty that she might neither trust to anything so fleeting nor be sought for by others for its sake. Though he closes his book with an acknowledgment that the saints were right in their losing of life; though he concedes to them "knowledge of heights to which it is most certain we shall never reach;" though he asks of his readers, "Do not look too high on these my figures; I have drawn them from the waist down, the shoulders and the head were beyond my sight"—nevertheless he writes as one who cannot quite believe that the saints were grateful in growing tired of God's gift of life, and suggests that "he who is so anxious for death, and makes war on the body with so little relenting, has perhaps won to quite another heaven than that in which the Prince of Life is King." This is a book to be read and re-read and laid aside to be read again.

Text-Book on New York School Law (A). By Thomas E. Finegan, A.M. The Weed-Parsons Printing Co., Albany, N.Y. 5½×7½ in. 384 pages.

Admirable in plan and execution, and valuable as a reference-book not only to school officials but to all New Yorkers interested in school problems.

Top or Bottom—Which? An Inquiry into the Causes of Success and Failure in Life. By Archer Brown. Post & Davis, New York. 5½×8¼ in. 51 pages.

Transactions of the Kansas State Historical Society, 1901-1902. Vol. VII. Edited by George W. Martin. W. Y. Morgan, Topeka, Kan. 6×9¼ in. 619 pages.

A new edition, the fourth, has been published of the little book on the Boer War written by Allen Dulles, a boy of eight, of which an account has already been given in The Outlook. It may be obtained by addressing Robert Lansing, 12 Mullin Street, Watertown, N. Y.

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Correspondence

The Habits of Birds

To the Editors of The Outlook:

The article by Professor Scott in a recent issue of The Outlook is doubly interesting to those who make the habits of birds a study, and it is refreshing to know that there is at least one scientific laboratory where something else besides hair-splitting and feather-shaving prevails. One is sometimes inclined to think that Darwin need not have worried so much about the origin of species if he had known much of the labors of some of the youthful habitués of the national institutions and the proclamations of the committee of revision of the American check-list; for then he might have known where species begin—but never where they end.

Professor Scott's work is not in a new field, but in an old one that is none the less open and refreshing—one to which the English have paid more attention than we. Daines Barrington, one of White's correspondents, made many similar experiments in training the young of one species of bird to learn the song of another. Likewise a Reverend Herbert, an editor of one of the editions of White's "Selborne," experimented in improving the songs of birds (which in the wild state had poor accomplishments but good capacities) by placing them, when young, under the tutelage of brilliant songsters. Long before this old Father Kircher had noted that young nightingales would never sing the celebrated song unless they were trained by the parent, and that they readily took up the melody of the other birds when in confinement. Barrington came to the conclusion, intimated by Professor Scott as the result of his studies, that "so much depends upon circumstances and perhaps caprice in the scholar that no general inference or rule can be laid down."

J. Rennie, much later, says that he repeated the experiments of Barrington on caged birds, and found that most of these, when young, would repeat the notes of birds of the same room; but he concludes in a manner which is so pertinent in this connection—seeming to me to state the whole case so well—that it is worth quoting in part:

"The theorists who maintain that the songs of birds are acquired by individual imitation find no little difficulty in accounting for the uniformity which prevails among those of the same species. They tell us that young birds learn the song of the parent birds by associating exclusively with them before they can provide for themselves, and that afterwards they frequent the same places as the rest of their kind; but, unfortunately for this explanation, the fact is that song-birds, for the most part, become silent after their young are hatched. Neither is it true that song-birds associate exclusively with their own species, and, although they did, it would not follow that they never hear other birds. How, then, does it happen, since they are by the theory so prone to imitation, that they never, in the wild state, intermingle the notes of others with those peculiar to their own species? Upon the principles of the theory every bird ought to be a polyglot."

It would seem, therefore, that any sort of confinement may act as a peculiar environment upon the habits of birds, as it is well known to act in many other cases—shutting off some of the most basic instincts in many animals and reptiles. Some birds never acquire their complete adult plumage in confinement—at least their nuptial colors—and it may be that their full instinctive breeding song is suppressed in somewhat the same manner.

This imitation in confinement does not apply constantly. Not only are there individuals of a certain species which are not mimics in their practice, but there are some species which rarely have an imitator in them. To illustrate, I have known young redbirds reared with canaries, but the former never sang the latter's song; but when young canaries are reared in the same room with a redbird, they are very apt to take up his song and sing no other. However much a bird may sing the song of another, still there is apt to remain at least a part of the instinctive music of the species, and in many cases it

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persists entire under any conditions of acquisition, from nothing to complete mastery of the foster song. Thus the cowbird, which in the wild state is always reared by a foster parent, has no record of ever singing the song of its nurse or acquiring any call even but its own. In fact, its call is the most primitively instinctive, since it is so distinctly that of the sparrow forms, from which stock the cowbird has so evidently descended. In the free state the common house-sparrow never has a musical call even, though constantly associated with the best of songsters, but in confinement he has been known to sing not only a pretty song of his own, but to imitate those of the best.

Our mocking-bird furnishes an instance of an imitator retaining his native song throughout any amount of mimicking; for always interspersed with his mockery are phrases peculiarly his own. The same thing occurs in the brown thrasher, which mimics often in the wild state. When very young both these birds, like the young of the Baltimore oriole, rose-breasted grosbeak, and others, has a song that is never reproduced in the adult.

To show that the mimicking itself may be, in large part, instinctive, as well as something that may be acquired and cultivated, young mockers often mimic songs of birds that they have had no opportunity of hearing; but, on the theory that much of instinct is inherited memory, this may be the race-remembrance of birds that sang ages ago. In like manner, it may be maintained that where any bird sings its song instinctively, without ever having heard its fellow, it is merely repeating what its forefathers acquired by imitation and practice in the past. On this theory, the songs of very young birds may be such as the race of adults have cast aside upon the acquisition of better ones, and Professor Scott's theory may thus apply under all conditions.

While he is correct in stating that different environment often brings about different songs in the same (or nearly the same?) species, and that in this manner new songs and new habits may have come about, yet his statement that the meadow-lark is practically non-migratory is scarcely in keeping with the principle. In New Jersey the birds are doubtless found all winter, and, along with the bluebird, robin, chewink, redwing, and many others, are learning to bear an Atlantic coast winter; but since the meadow-lark is distributed as far north as Canada, it certainly migrates from the northern parts of Colorado, Kansas, Nebraska, the Dakotas, Iowa, etc. I have no knowledge of any remaining—at least in any quantity—in Missouri north of the river. Many are known to stay in southern Illinois, and doubtless southern Missouri knows many in the winter. Because we can see some migratory birds about in cold weather we are not always justified in believing that the bulk of those which have nested about us have not gone further south. Even if there have been many present in the summer, those seen later may be some that have come from further north and have taken the place of those we have had with us.

I think that while the meadow-larks about Princeton may have only three notes in their songs, it will be found that these birds in the East have usually four and often five in each phrase, and more phrases than one in most efforts, which phrases differ from each other. Cheney so wrote of it from New Hampshire, and Chapman writes of it as having eight notes at Englewood, N. J. Here in Missouri, where the Eastern and Western forms merge, there is great variety in each, through many notes, and a distinct mixture of the two kinds of song, which appears to occur more from the hybridizing of the two so-called species than from the imitation of one by the other, though there is no reason why this last may not occur.

JAMES NEWTON BASKETT.

Mexico, Mo.

Poor Men's Outings

To the Editors of The Outlook:

Will you acknowledge for us the receipt from your readers of nearly one hundred dollars for our outings in the country for poor old men?

The Outlook has a great many very nice people who, as they enjoy the life of summer, wish to have other people enjoy it.

To those of them who cannot have the happiness of receiving the thanks of these old people, we wish to return our own thanks. We have acknowledged these contributions by letter when we could.

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Please say for us that we have also received a contribution from "Huldah" of ten dollars. EDWARD E. HALE.

Lend a Hand Office, 1 Beacon Street, Boston.

The Working-Girls' Vacation Society

To the Editors of The Outlook:

The Working-Girls' Vacation Society is well known to many of the readers of The Outlook. The Society comes to them now in an emergency, asking for help. A gentleman has generously placed at the Society's disposal a large country house with fifty acres at Cornwall-on-the-Hudson. It was occupied by his parents for forty-five years, and has recently come into his possession. He intends to sell it in the winter, and in the meantime offers it to the Society free of charge. As it is furnished, only sufficient money for food, boat transportation, and wages of assistants is necessary to make it available at once. Five hundred dollars will cover these expenses. Remembering the generosity of the readers of The Outlook in past years, the Society ventures to hope that this money will be forthcoming.

Each spring the Society plans the work of the following summer according to the amount of money in its treasury. After all the places in the eight houses have been promised, a waiting list is begun. This list was started some weeks ago. On it are the names of young women for whom the examining physician says the vacation is needful, but they can go only in case some of those promised earlier in the season drop out. These girls know their chance is small, but they would be infinitely grateful for the vacation. For those who spend weeks or months away from the city each summer it is difficult to understand what these short vacations mean to workingwomen. Contributions sent to the treasurer, Miss Edith Bryce, 20 West Fifty-fourth Street, New York City, will be gratefully acknowledged. *

We Were Misinformed

To the Editors of The Outlook:

In your issue of July 5, under the heading "Governor Aycock Defends Negro Rights," you have the following: "The Governor informed the supporters of this reactionary step that if their bill passed the Legislature he would veto it, and if it repassed the bill over his veto he would resign and make a campaign for re-election on the issue so raised." The Governor of North Carolina has no power to veto acts duly passed by the Legislature.

Durham, N. C. J. S. MANNING.

[We regret that we were misled by misstatements in New York papers.—THE EDITORS.]

Notes and Queries

A friend who does not profess to be a Christian asked me, "What is the use of prayer, if God knows beforehand what are our wants and desires, and will grant our petitions or not as he thinks best?" I would like to give him your answer to this question. A. O. C.

Your friend's difficulty is with petitionary prayer. Prayer, as heart-communion with God, includes much beside petitions. Let one who hesitates at petitionary prayer begin with the prayer of thanksgiving and adoration. But it is a wrong notion of petitionary prayer that makes the difficulty—the idea that it aims at getting God to do our will. Its true aim is to get ourselves helped to do God's will. It is the right way of co-operating with God, by linking our desires and endeavors with his. Of course, God's will *will* be done, somehow. But it never is done, whether in feeding, or instructing, or in governing the world, any further than it is done by men in conscious or unconscious co-operation with God. But conscious co-operation with God is the breath of all right petitionary prayer. "Thy will be done," the central utterance of the Lord's prayer, ought to be our constant utterance, as well as our constant purpose. For it is the daily utterance that is needed to strengthen the daily purpose.

Please mention some French and English conversational books which would be of advantage to beginners. F. C. C.

Sardou's "The French Language Self-Taught" (Appletons, New York); Marchand's "A New Method of French Conversation" (Schoenof, Boston); Cortina's "The Cortina Method" (Cortina, New York); Masson's "A Dictionary of the French Language" (Hurst, New York); Constanseau's "A Pocket Dictionary of the French and English Languages" (Longmans, New York).

I have read with much interest Hudson's "Law of Psychic Phenomena" and his "A Scientific Demonstration of the Future Life," and very much of what he says in each is new to me. I would like to read some book traversing antagonistically the views he enunciates, especially from the standpoint of Spiritualists. Can you give the names of some that will repay reading? P.

More important on this subject than any work now in print is one at present in the press of Longmans, Green & Co., London and New York, "Human Personality and its Survival of Bodily Death," by the late Frederick W. H. Myers, President of the Society for Psychical Research. In its two volumes the whole group of abnormal psychical phenomena is discussed.

In reply to the inquiry as to authorship of the lines

> "All we have willed or hoped . . .
> we shall hear it by and by,"

I will state that the lines quoted form stanza X. of the beautiful and suggestive poem by Robert Browning entitled "Abt Vogler." (After he has been extemporizing upon the musical instrument of his invention.) E. E. C.

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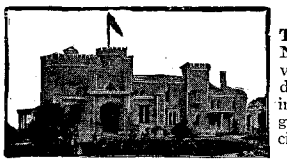

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